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THE INFLUENCES OF GENDER AND RACE ON THE ATTACHMENT STYLES WITHIN
A CRIMINAL POPULATION

A Dissertation
presented in partial fulfillment of requirements
For the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
In the Department of Leadership and Counselor Education
The University of Mississippi

by

M. Morgan Litchfield Bryant

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ABSTRACT

This study utilizes tenets of attachment theory to examine how patterns of relating to parental figures vary according to the race and gender of subjects residing in a correctional facility. The study can perhaps influence rehabilitation services within the prison system and modify anti-recidivism programs attended by individuals released from a correctional facility.

Second year doctoral students originally collected the data. The participants in the study were given the Adult Scale of Parental Attachment (ASPA) and a general questionnaire in an effort to gather information regarding race, gender, and patterns of relating. The participants were above the age of 18, have been convicted of a crime, and are currently serving time in a prison for that crime. Informed consent forms were attached to the testing material, and issues of confidentiality were addressed verbally.

A series of MANOVAs were run to analyze the data that was gathered on the participants. It was found that the Mother Dependent, Father Dependent, and Father Safe variables were significant when looking at the gender of a prison inmate. Further investigation found that the Dependent patterns of relating are lower in males when compared to their female counterparts, and lower for the prison population as a whole when compared to the general population. When investigating the Father Safe subscale of the ASPA, it was found that males report less safety in the relationship with the father figure than the females, and that the prison population perceived a less safe relationship with the father than the general population. The Mother Parentified variable showed significance when looking at the race of a prison inmate. The Non-White participants displayed a higher degree of parentified feelings when compared to

the White/Caucasian group. The prison population showed a higher degree of parentification when compared to the general population.

The present study indicates that patterns of relating to the mother and father figure tend to differ according to the race and gender of the inmate surveyed. The study also suggests a need for continued research within the prison population concerning specific ways patterns of relating are differentiated by gender and race.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the many that have influenced and encouraged me over the years. To my parents who loved and supported me through my many adventures in life. I am truly a lucky woman. You patterned healthy parenting and gave me the stable base I needed to explore the perplexities of life. Specifically, my mother, Beverly Litchfield, your patience, determination, and kindness to everyone are something I strive for daily. You taught me anything worth having is hard to get. My father, Don Litchfield, your ability to always see the good in me has kept me going in difficult times. I knew that if I tried my best, you would be proud. To my sister, Molly Litchfield Judson, you taught me about uniqueness, inventiveness, and imagination. Your liveliness and creativity lives in me. Also, to Hamp and Howie, my nephews, you have brought me immeasurable joy and gave me a desire to keep pressing forward. To Dotti, April, David, Shannon, Beth, Lindsey, Angie, Graham, Mary Balfour, Elizabeth, and Linda, I am forever grateful for your support throughout this process and am honored to call you my friend. You listened even when you had no idea what I was talking about. I also dedicate this work to my doctoral cohort, Charley, Lynn, Keysha, Josh, and Nadia. You encouraged me, made me laugh, and reminded me that we are in this together. I could not have made it without you.

Finally, I dedicate this work to my husband, Ben Bryant. You have supported me and helped whenever I asked. The hundreds of pages you proofread, the miles you drove to be with me even if just for a couple of hours, and your keen ability to move out of the way of the storm

makes you deserving of a PhD too. You were my biggest cheerleader and I appreciate all that you have done (more than can be expressed).

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Chapter I

Introduction

Attachment theory is the study of an individual's connection to his or her primary caregiver and how that relationship influences the patterns of relating to self and others throughout the lifespan (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). First introduced by John Bowlby (1979/1982), attachment theory assumes that a healthy sense of self and the ability to relate to others are based on an individual's connection to the primary caregiver. Ainsworth expanded the ideas of attachment as first introduced by John Bowlby to include the ideas of a bond or enduring connection between a child/infant to a mother figure (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Attachment is understood as a set of behaviors displayed by a child to signify the ties one has to the mother. Ainsworth and colleagues completed a study in which children were observed and patterns were established as consistent with particular bonding behaviors. The three styles established were as follows: secure, anxious-ambivalent, and avoidant. Attachment theory presumes that a healthy sense of self and the ability to relate to others in a productive manner are based upon the relationship one has to parental figures (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). Patterns of relating established early on will affect an individual's ability to ascertain routine connections with others and participate in society responsibly (West & Sheldon-Keller, 1994). Snow et al. (2007) further examined patterns of relating and established an understanding of how an individual relates to parental figures. These patterns are as follows and will be used in the proposed study: safe, dependent, parentified, fearful, and distant.

Attachment theory speculates that children incorporate attachment styles from their parents by way of representational models of the parent (Bowlby, 1980). The relationship

formed between the parent and child is influenced by the parent's representational model. The child will then develop what is known as an internal working model (IWM) based on the interactions with the parent's representational models. Developing a sense of self and of the self as it relates to others are integral tasks experienced by children based on the IWM. From these experiences come patterns of relating to others known as attachment styles, which affect relationships with others throughout the lifespan of an individual. In other words, the earliest attachment experiences shape one's expectations of self and self and others (Bowlby, 1988b). Attachment behaviors, and the sequel of attachment interactions, shape the actions that become necessary for a sense of security. These working models shape the later interactions an adult experiences in various relationships.

One of the unique aspects of attachment theory is the mingling of normative development ideas with an embrace of individual differences (Hzan, Gur-Yarish, & Campa, 2004). To explore the significance of individual maladaptive variations of attachment, the characteristics of healthy attachment should be understood. Ainsworth and colleagues (1978) placed individuals into one of two categories: secure or insecure. This classification was based on particular behaviors displayed in an individual's seeking proximity and safety during a stressful situation. Securely attached individuals seek the primary caregiver to regulate and alleviate the stress. Securely attached individuals explore unfamiliar environments because the fear associated with them is minimized by the primary caregiver. It is important to remember, however, that an insecure attachment to a primary caregiver is an attachment nonetheless.

It is thought that a consequence of patterns of sub-optimal attachment to the primary caregiver may result in an individual's involvement in criminal activity (Jamieson & Marshall, 2000). In a report regarding prison recidivism rates by the United States Department of Justice

(1994), it stated that 70.7% of prisoners released from a correctional facility were re-arrested within five years, 49.6 were reconvicted, and 40.2 were reincarcerated. These statistics seem to suggest that current rehabilitation methods are not tackling needs inside the prison setting. Research appears to focus on various factors that influence the success of programs within correctional facilities. However, few studies have assessed the numerous factors to a degree that leads to actual change within protocol for rehabilitation programs. One factor in particular, attachment styles, has been studied for its effects upon criminal behaviors (Jamieson & Marshall, 2000). To more thoroughly assess the issue of attachment styles and criminal activity, variables such as gender and race should be researched for relevance in order to fully understand attachment theory and the possible influences upon rehabilitation programs within the prison setting.

A major issue to be considered in a prison population is the overrepresentation of minority races (U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ), 2010). Studies regarding attachment and race have been conducted (Hazan, Gur-Zaish, & Campa, 2004; Laschinger, 2006; Moreno, 2007), but few consider the dynamics as specific variables within the prison setting. The proposed study will seek to understand the relation (if any) of suboptimal attachment styles specific to a particular race in a prison setting.

Also, gender differences and attachment styles have been found in several studies (Chodorow, 1978; Collins & Read, 1990; Gilligan, 1982; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994). To more thoroughly assess the role gender plays on attachment styles within this specific population, information will be analyzed for each sex. For this study, a thorough exploration into the differing styles of attachment displayed by various racial groups and gender provide links to understanding the gender and race variable within a criminal population.

Statement of the Problem

It has been determined that there is a relationship between poor attachment styles to parental figures and the participation in criminal activity (Fonagy & Target, 1995; Frodi, Dernevik, Sepa, Philipson & Bragesjo, 2001; Jamieson & Marshall, 2000). There is staggering evidence that a large number of individuals serving time in correctional facilities display some form of insecure patterns of relating. Other studies have also shown that attachment patterns vary by race (Evans, 1998; Grice, 1999; Moreno, 2007). This study examines the difference of patterns of relating between male and females from different racial groups within a prison population. Although research has been conducted to examine the relationship between attachment styles and criminality, few studies have broadened the topic to include an exploration into the influences of race on this relationship. The suggested study can perhaps influence rehabilitation services within the prison system and modify anti-recidivism programs for individuals released from a correctional facility.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the differences in patterns of relating in the mother and father figure among a criminal population while also examining the impact of the gender and race of the participant. Researchers have started to investigate the unique connection of criminal activity and patterns of relating (Frodi, Dernevik, Sepa, Philipson, & Bragesjo, 2001). However, studies seem to lack a focus on how gender and race influence patterns of relating while also looking at a very specific population; inmates in a prison.

Significance of the Study

An unhealthy attachment to one or both parental figures is a factor that impacts the probability of an individual's participating in criminal activity (Frodi, Dernevik, Sepa, Philipson, & Bragesjo, 2001). Fonagy (1999) found a relatively strong relationship between participation in violent crimes and display a disorganized attachment style. Attachment patterns for inmates are believed to be less stable and therefore result in poor relationships with self and others. Because race, gender, and attachment styles of an individual within a prison population have not been noted in recent literature, the implications of the proposed study will be valuable for counselors working with individuals who are or have been incarcerated. Discerning the motivation behind participation in criminal activities can enhance the fields of counseling and corrections, while also reducing recidivism.

This study blends the tenets of attachment theory to examine how patterns of relating to father and mother figures vary according to the gender and race of subjects residing in a correctional facility. The study includes both male and female residents of moderately sized prisons in rural and urban areas. The Adult Scale of Parental Attachment (ASPA) was used to determine if specific patterns of relating exist among the participants. Research on the ASPA has shown that it measures and determines the interaction of five patterns of relating to parental figures. A general questionnaire determined demographic information relevant to this particular study, such as race, age, and criminal history.

As counselors work with adult offenders to promote a more acute awareness of self and to facilitate change, the familial history that influenced the early formation of a subject's relationships becomes a major focus of treatment. In summary, this study examined the

underlying factors of attachment in relation to clinical symptomatology and criminal behavior. These findings provide a frame of attachment styles within a prison setting.

Research Questions

This quantitative study is designed primarily to examine the influences on attachment styles in the criminal population. The overarching research question is as follows: Does gender and race have an effect on the patterns of relating to a prison inmate? The study addresses the following secondary research questions:

1. Is there a difference in the patterns of relating for the mother (safe, dependent, parentified, fearful, and distant) by the gender and race of a prison inmate?
2. Is there a difference in patterns of relating for the father (safe, dependent, parentified, fearful, and distant) by the gender and race of a prison inmate?
3. Is there an interaction between gender and race when observing the differences in patterns of relating for each parent (mother and father) in a prison inmate?

It predicted that the patterns of relating will be different in each parental figure when examining the variables of gender and race in the criminal population.

Hypotheses

A review of current literature regarding attachment styles suggests that they influence the onset of criminal behavior (Fonagy & Target, 1995; Jamieson & Marshall, 2000; McGarvey, Kryzhanovskaya, Koopman, Walte & Canterbury, 2002; van Ijzendoorn, 1997; van Ijzendoorn et al., 1997; Ward, Hudson & Marshall, 1996). The following hypotheses examine the differences between patterns of relating to the mother and father (dependent variable) figure by gender and race (independent variable) of a prison inmate. The primary research hypotheses (null and alternative) and secondary hypotheses are as follows:

- H₀1: There is no significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a1: There is a significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H₀2: There is no significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a2: There is a significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H₀3: There is no significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a3: There is a significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H₀4: There is no significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a4: There is a significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H₀5: There is no significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

- H_a5: There is a significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_o6: There is no significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a6: There is a significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_o7: There is no significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a7: There is a significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_o8: There is no significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a8: There is a significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_o9: There is no significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a9: There is a significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_o10: There is no significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a10: There is a significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

Limitations

The study was originally conducted in a doctoral research class. Data was gathered from two prisons within the Southeastern part of the United States. The geographical location of the study may limit researchers' ability to apply the information learned to the wider prison population. It is assumed that the general characteristics of inmates are more similar than different regardless of the geographical location. Another limitation is the study did not collect data on the race of parents, and, therefore, it is assumed that the race of the participant signals the race of the parent. This study will only include the race of the participant and will not discuss the race of the parent.

The impact of the primary caregiver is recognized as significantly influencing the way in which a person relates to the self and self and others. The influences of extended family members (grandparents, aunts, and uncles) have not been accounted for by the ASPA, but those influences also affect the development of the sense of self and self and others (White, 2005).

Also, adults form attachment bonds with other significant people such as romantic partners, mentors, or even counselors (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). The impacts of other relationships and their influence on criminal activity could serve as subjects for further investigation. Future research could explore the attachment relationship to significant others and the effect of race on criminal behaviors.

Definition of Terms

In the study, definitions are based on terms found through an extensive search of relevant and current literature.

Attachment. An affectionate connection between two people that persist for a significant amount of time and bond them together at an emotional level (Klaus, & Kennell, 1976).

Attachment Behavior. Common expression of behavior in which an individual displays the need for and/or seeks to maintain the desired level of proximity (Bowlby, 1969/1982).

Attachment System. The ordered arrangement of attachment behaviors within an individual (Cassidy & Shaver, 1999).

Attachment Theory. A school of thought that conceptualizes the tendency for human beings to make substantial emotional connections to particular others and illustrates the numerous configurations of emotional affliction and personality disturbance that opposed separation and loss could conjure up (Bowlby, 1988b).

Internal Working Models. Mental depictions constructed in the mind based on experiences and involvement with the primary caregiver during infancy and early childhood (Bowlby, 1969).

Primary Caregiver/Attachment Figure. The individual to whom a child directs attachment behaviors by choice (Bowlby, 1973).

Proximity Seeking. The quest for closeness, or distance to or from the primary attachment figure in which the attachment system is activated or terminated depending on the need of the individual (Bowlby, 1969/1982).

Judicial: Correctional facility. Any public or private residential facility with construction fixtures or staffing models designed to physically restrict the movements and activities of juveniles or other individuals that is used for placement, after adjudication and

disposition, of any juvenile who has been adjudicated as having committed an offense, or any other individual convicted of a criminal offense (USLegal, 2010).

Jail. A holding facility for individuals sentenced for misdemeanor crimes, unable to pay bail, or awaiting adjudication (USLegal, 2010).

Prison. A building designed for detaining individuals who have been adjudicated and incarcerated for an extended and specific period of time (USLegal, 2010).

Recidivism. The reoccurring arrest and incarceration of an inmate (USLegal, 2010).

Adult Scale for Parental Attachment/Patterns of Relating: Safe. This subscale evaluates the degree to which an individual perceived security in and with the parent. Comfort with the parent's ability to support the child is assumed (Snow et al., 2007).

Dependent. This factor assesses the degree to which a child experienced a need for the parent to be available. The child may have experienced insecure feelings of helplessness surrounding the brief or extended absence of the parent (Snow et al., 2007).

Parentified. This subscale gauges the degree to which a child felt responsible for the parent's feelings or needs. The child may have a well-developed sense of importance and draw great pleasure from being helpful (Snow et al., 2007).

Fearful. This factor assesses the feelings a child has regarding abandonment and fears the parent may not provide support. Feelings of anger and frustration towards the parent are common (Snow et al., 2007).

Distant. This subscale gauges the degree to which a child experienced disappointment in support and availability of the parent. Anger towards the parent is common and the child may have experienced a need to distance himself (Snow et al., 2007).

Summary

The study was designed to investigate the relationship between patterns of relating to mother and father figures and the gender and race of inmates residing in a correctional facility. It is predicted that there will be a difference in patterns of relating to mother and father figures according to the gender and race of the participants in the research. The importance of gathering this information is to assist future counselors working within corrections populations and to further develop rehabilitation curricula within the prison system. A review of literature further highlights the gap in research regarding attachment patterns, race, and criminal behaviors.

In the following chapter, the author will provide a review of literature on the history of attachment theory, nuances of adult attachment, and specific information regarding psychopathology, criminal activity, race, and gender with regard to its relationship to attachment. A thorough review of the instruments used for assessment, along with the self-report responses from the demographic portion of the assessment, will appear in Chapter III. An expansive account will be provided of the overall design of the study, along with a delineation of participants of the study. The proposed statistical method of analysis will be discussed. Chapter IV will thoroughly discuss the research question being studied and the results of the proposed study. The Discussion, chapter V, will bring together the findings regarding the research question proposed in the introduction. The additions the study has contributed to the field of counseling and to the broader human services field will be covered, along with implications for future research. Unexpected findings are discussed, and the limitations of the study will be made clear.

Chapter II

Literature Review

This review of literature will provide an overall definition and explanation of attachment theory and the effects of attachment disorders on the propensity to participate in criminal activity. It will chronicle the history of attachment theory and describe the emergence of the core components of the theory; examine the role the theory plays in the development of psychopathology; and how that psychopathology contributes to criminal behavior. The last part of the discussion will highlight the unique influences of gender and race on attachment and how those influences also impact attachment, psychopathology, and criminal activity.

Theoretical Framework

Perhaps the most influential theorist within the attachment field, John Bowlby (1969/1982, 1973, 1980), is credited with developing the framework through which behaviors are understood and made useful to the current study. Attachment theory is explained as an individual's ability to form emotional bonds with others. In most discussions, the mother is viewed as the primary caregiver and the focus toward which most attaching behaviors are directed. Compelling bonds to the mother figure form within the first few days of life. Bowlby's seminal work is regarded as the lens through which all attachment theories are viewed. One is hard pressed to add attachment theory as a variable to any study and not mention the work of John Bowlby.

Based on an evolutionary framework, Bowlby (1969/1982, 1973) theorized that attachment was based on the need of a child to seek proximity to others for safety, protection, and survival. A behavioral adaptation that has become a biological component of human beings,

attachment serves an infant's need to seek protection from predators. Bowlby felt that infants were predisposed to seek the comfort of a primary caregiver during times of distress. Based on these foundational ideas of attachment theory, behaviors associated with attachment are normal to the developmental process and are displayed throughout the lifespan of an individual. Furthermore, children become attached to a primary caregiver whether the attachment is deemed healthy and secure or unhealthy and insecure. Bowlby (1956) concluded that attachment is not a simple seeking of comfort, because infants will attach to abusive mothers, and thus is an innate behavioral system.

The attachment behavioral system is described by Bowlby (1969/1982) as a quest for homeostasis rather than a state of being. The child's goal is not the object (mother) but proximity to the object. Once that proximity has been achieved with the onset of attachment-seeking behaviors, the child will then cease the behaviors. The ultimate goal of the relationship is one of self-regulation and is a mutually-activated system of responses.

Schemas

First introduced by Kant in 1781, schemas were conceptualized as the understanding of how information received from the senses is converted to ideas or knowledge in the mind. Schemas help a person make sense of the world around them or organize the large amount of information coming at a person from the sensorial world. According to Bartlett (1932), memories are filed as stories that may be historically valid or fractionally recreated. Because it is not necessary for all the pieces of a "story" to be present, people are able to piece together fragments or operate with contradictory information. Bartlett's ideas of memory have evolved into "plausible scenarios." There is a general outline that one follows, and a supply of missing details are supplied to finish the story. Although schemas can aid in organizing and making

sense, they can also promote rigidly mundane thinking that limit the ability to change.

Alternatives become ignored. A differentiation is needed in recognizing the difference between schemas and the ideas of internal working models that are principal to the feature of the adult attachment system (Bowlby, 1988b; Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985). Simply put, schemas organize information and working models organize relationships within the mind of an individual (West & Sheldon-Keller, 1994).

Internal Working Model

The mental representations of the self and the self as it relates to others is the basis for the expression of interpersonal behaviors key to understanding the concept of attachment (West & Sheldon-Keller, 1994). According to West and Sheldon-Keller, “the adjustment and psychological health of the individual is often discussed in terms of abstracted features of this representational world, features such as differentiation, integration, richness, and rigidity” (p. 53). Representations are derived from the experiences with the primary attachment figure and are focused on the quest to fulfill and fulfillment of attachment needs (Bretherton, 1985; Sroufe & Waters, 1977). During an infant’s first year of life, he or she develops a representation within the mind about how the attachment figure responds to the need for proximity and security (Soares & Silva, 1998). Through recurring interactions with the primary caregiver, an infant will develop generalized images of self, the caregiver, and ultimately that relationship in particular.

Bowlby (1969/1982) preferred the term “internal working models” to “representational models” because of the active role these internalized models play in controlling the expression of certain behaviors. Both concepts form a fundamental base for shaping the interpersonal representation of self and self and others and provide a framework through which pertinent attachment material is filtered (West & Sheldon-Keller, 1994). As stated by West and

Sheldon-Keller, “it is a self-creation of the individual based on historical experiences with actual attachment figures” (p. 54). According to Peterfreund (1983), “Working models refer to the internal organization of memory, knowledge, experiences and affects into a coherent whole that can direct and influence evaluations and actions” (p. 81). The assumptions predict how the individual will develop a concept of self and self and others over time and begin to organize his or her social world (Collins & Read, 1990).

Simply put, each individual has a unique set of memories and encounters, as well as a specific propensity for action that guides how he or she intermingles with others and makes meaning of the world (Collins, Guichard, Ford, & Feeney, 2004). These psychological structures are the core features of personality and shape how an individual expresses attachment. Working models develop from experiences of attachment to the principal caregiver and focus on the fulfillment of needs such as proximity and security. They are the basis of attachment theory and are thought to organize attachment behaviors, arbitrate differentiation in attachment style, and account for consistency in functioning across the lifespan. The experiences affiliated with the caregiver’s availability come together to form expectations about the availability/reliability of the caregiver, and thus a self-concept about the individual’s capacity to elicit attachment responses (West & Sheldon-Keller, 1994). Most of the cognitive representations are part of a pattern of affect usually consistent throughout the lifespan of an individual. A single affect may be central to the individual’s model. It is important to note for this study that insecure representations such as anger, aggression, depression, et cetera are usually associated with the anticipation and expectation of loss with the primary caregiver.

Expanding on the ideas of Bowlby, Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall (1978) further developed the theory of attachment and focused on the innate attachment behavior organization

and contextual attachment learning process. Ainsworth and colleagues tested Bowlby's ideas via empirical studies in which children were observed and patterns were coded as consistent with particular bonding behaviors. Attachment is understood as a set of behaviors displayed by a child to signify ties to the caregiver. The three patterns established by the research are as follows: secure, anxious-ambivalent, and avoidant. Based on the primary caregiver's response to the expressed attachment behaviors, different patterns emerge that signal the pattern through which one has bonded to the parental figure. Ainsworth and colleagues also proposed the idea of attachment to include the notion of a bond or enduring connection between a child/infant to a mother figure. The idea is one of the most significant contributions to this theory of attachment. It expanded the work of John Bowlby by actually testing the theory he suggested. In the current research study, it is imperative to understand the fundamental framework provided by Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, and Wall before components of attachment are further explored.

Main and Solomon (1990) expand the work of Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, and Wall to add a fourth category of attachment, a primary caregiver most often identified as the mother. Main was a colleague of Ainsworth, and the additional category was accepted and proven valid. The Disorganized/Disoriented attachment style is characterized by a child who cries when the mother leaves the room but ignores her when she returns. The child displays anxiety about the leaving but seems unmoved by the return. This disorganized relationship with the primary caregiver is somewhat chaotic and could signal confusion about the caregiver. In most situations in which a child was classified as disorganized/disoriented, the mother had suffered some kind of major loss or trauma before pregnancy, during pregnancy, or immediately after the birth of the child. The inclusion of the disorganized/disoriented category of attachment is important because it is a recognized classification of attachment styles.

Adult Attachment

Rholes and Simpson (2004) discuss the expansion of attachment theory in recent years to include developmental components and relationship patterns throughout the lifespan.

Intrapersonal influences such as behavior, affect, and cognition are vital to the understanding of adult attachment. Close relationships formed within the adult are thought to be linked to attachment styles and the functioning aspects of relationships. The bonds that continue to develop through the life cycle may expand to include other parental figures, romantic partners, and, perhaps, a counselor (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). The adult will most likely relate to the various attachment figures in life as he or she did to the first primary figure of attachment.

Adults in various relationships will use each other as the foci of attachment behaviors. Because the quality of relationships within the life of an individual are thought to affect physical health and self-efficacy, the importance of understanding the role attachment plays in adult relationships is vital. In the proposed study, attachment theory provides a framework for understanding an individual's response to criminal activity.

A person's self-perception and capacity to control emotions are products of attachment relationships beginning with infancy and encompassing significant relationships throughout life (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2004). The primary caregiver's availability creates internal mechanisms known as security-based self-representations. This internal base of security forms an inner source of comfort that can be activated within the individual throughout life. As a person matures, new sources for security-based relationships emerge. The person will seek security and activate the internal comfort mechanism from the adult secure base, which, when demonstrated as a behavior, is the attachment style of the individual. Consistent research has shown that those individuals with secure attachment styles display a tendency to seek support during times of

distress or perceived threats and to rely on others as a means of coping (Berant, Mikulincer, & Florian, 2001; Larose & Bernier, 2001; Mikulincer, Florian, & Weller, 1993; Ognibene & Collins, 1998).

The concept of secondary attachment strategies is of possible importance to the proposed study because it highlights insecure attachment responses (Main, 1990; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003). Secondary responses are psychological protection mechanisms brought about when an attachment is unresponsive to the attachment seeking behaviors—distress and insecurity are usually the results. Over time, if distress is not regulated, a negative model of self and self and others regarding support-seeking turns into what Main (1990) described as secondary attachment strategies. Hyperactivation and deactivation are the two major secondary strategies.

Hyperactivation is described as the use of clingy and controlling responses to the attachment figure as a way of alleviating distance and ensuring support (Cassidy & Berlin, 1994).

Deactivation is characterized by an adult's maximizing the distance from the primary attachment figure and a hyper-reliance on self (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988).

If the primary caregiver is either physically or emotionally unavailable, a child will often attach to or substitute the parental unit for something more available (Phaller & Kiselica, 1996). Attachment to something will occur, most likely to what is available and present at that moment. Contact with the initial attachment figure becomes less strong as adult life begins, and the individual will search out other secure bases or surrogate attachment figures. The adult will most likely relate to the various attachment figures in life as he or she did to the first attachment figure (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). The patterns are somewhat stable, but the ability to change may emerge. Adults in various relationships will use each other as the primary figures for attachment. Attachment manifests in all relationships to some degree (Pistole & Watkins, 1995).

Attachment and Psychopathology

Because the attachment process is integral to the development of self and self and others, it is important to obtain a thorough understanding of how the relationship with self and self and others affects emotional well-being. It is similarly crucial to understand how that balance of affect impacts psychological symptomatology. According to Masterson (2005), “The caregiver whose adult attachment rating is dismissing or preoccupied or unresolved/disorganized does not have the capacity to provide the synchronicity of affect states with the child that is essential to the development of the prefrontal orbital cortex and of the self” (p.11). This neurobiological level of development appears as a wiring defect in the child, which can be reflected at the psychological level as a deficit in the understanding of self. If the right prefrontal cortex is underdeveloped, then the individual experiences stress, trouble organizing thought patterns and limitations on his or her ability to perceive the emotional states of others. The individual with a developmental deficiency may have trouble deciphering the emotional states of others and difficulty interpreting facial expressions. During stressful events, these individuals may have scattered or chaotic thoughts with overwhelmed innate and somatic sensations. This will limit the individual’s ability to self reflect about a situation. It may create a sense of more chaos. Important to understanding the biological developmental component of the formation of psychopathology are the ideas of internal working models, object relations, or intra-psychic structures (Masterson, 2005). These ideas of the internal organizational patterns within the brain that form the personality become the healthy or pathological regulators of emotions.

It is important to note that attachment styles are not clinically appropriate diagnostic tools for personality disorders. However, children with insecure attachment styles display behaviors associated with personality disorders more frequently than others (Hobson, 2002). Because

extensive longitudinal studies are needed to delve into the specific effects of quality mother/infant interactions and later personality development, research is focused on the behavior of children with insecure attachment and the behaviors displayed that could indicate a personality disturbance that leads to a disorder (Masterson, 2005). A study performed by Fonagy, Gergely, Jurist, and Target (2002) found that 71% of children with a disorganized attachment style were found to be more hostile when compared to children with a secure attachment style. The study also revealed that the addition of a parent with a difficult temperament to the disorganized attachment style created a 99% chance of a child's displaying aggressive behaviors. A disruption in the performance of social tasks among insecurely attached children is also present and encourages behaviors closely associated with personality disorders (Hobson, 2002). While much research focuses on the infant/child attachment system, the consensus regarding adults who display some form of psychopathology is that there is a link between attachment styles and the ability to regulate emotions (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

Anti-Social Personality Disorder

Attachment theory posits that both normative and disordered developmental processes are similar (Crittenden, 2002). The theory pays homage to the wide range of displays of affect, including those that are considered psychopathological. According to Crittenden:

A particular advantage of this perspective is that the most serious disorders of adolescence and adulthood, the personality disorders and psychoses, can be seen as the cumulative effect of a series of developmental transformations, each of which adds distortion to previously distorted functioning (p. 73).

Located on Axis II of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual, Antisocial Personality Disorder (APD) is the personality disorder most associated with patterns of

criminal activity (American Psychiatric Association [*DSM-IV-TR*], 2000). Farrington (2005) discussed:

The major early risk factors for antisocial behavior include impulsiveness, low-intelligence and low school achievement, poor parental supervision, child physical abuse, punitive or erratic parental discipline, cold parental attitude, parental conflict, disrupted families, antisocial parents, large family size, low family income, antisocial peers, high delinquency-rate schools, and high crime neighborhoods (p. 177).

There seems to be an association between parental interaction and the quality of that interaction as a factor contributing to APD. Campbell, Porter, and Santor (2004) found that violent criminals had higher rates of psychopathological traits. The clear connection between attachment theory and criminality is the disorganized attachment style (Carlson, 1998). Not only do criminals display psychopathological traits, but the types of crimes were established to have some relevance associated with psychological functioning. Further illuminating that claim is a study conducted by Campbell, Porter, and Santor (2004), in which it was found that violent criminals had higher rates of psychopathological tendencies.

Furthermore, the development of APD seems to point to the disruption of attachment process at some point during childhood. Most experimental evidence suggests that an adult diagnosis of APD is partly due to unresolved or maladaptive states of the mind (Allen, Hauser, & Borman-Spurrell, 1996; Levinson & Fonagy, 2004; Rasenstein & Horowitz, 1996). Zannarini et al. (1989) found that 89% of people diagnosed with APD experienced an extended period of fractionation from a caregiver at some point during childhood. The separation may stem from

the death of a parent, divorce, or abandonment. Abandonment and divorce seemed to play larger roles than the death of a parent in the development of APD. The dismissing attachment style is most often associated with APD.

Attachment and Criminal Activity

An unhealthy attachment to a parental figure is one of the factors that may influence participation in criminal activity, as well as the effectiveness of rehabilitation programs within the prison system (Frodi, Dernevik, Sepa, Philipson, & Bragesjo, 2001). It is believed that a poor attachment system may result in an individual propensity towards criminal activity (Fonagy & Target, 1995; Jamieson & Marshall, 2000; McGarvey, Kryzhanovskaya, Koopman, Walte & Canterbury, 2002; van Ijzendor, 1997; van Ijzendoorn et al., 1997; Ward, Hudson & Marshall, 1996). Patterns of relating to primary caregivers will impact a person's capacity to facilitate positive relationships with the self and others, as well as the ability to partake in society responsibly (Snow et al., 2007). There is no lack of evidence that a significant number of imprisoned individuals display some form of poor patterns of relating. For example, Ross and Pfafflin (2007) found that prison inmates displayed more insecure attachment styles, thereby negatively affecting personal relationships and creating more interpersonal barriers. Fonagy (1999) discovered that a relationship between violent crimes and disorganized attachment styles were relatively high. A study of imprisoned males conducted by Hayslett-McCall and Bernard (2002) discovered that a poor pattern of relating to the primary caregiver from childhood had a long-term negative impact and could possibly contribute to the tendency to participate in criminal activity. Additionally, both male and female offenders displayed higher proportions of insecure attachment patterns, specifically avoidant, when compared to their non-criminal counterparts (Goldstein & Higgins-D'Allessandro, 2001).

Age does not seem to be a factor to consider when delving into the study of attachment patterns and criminal activity. Ireland and Power (2004) found that both juvenile and adult offenders displayed a higher degree of avoidant attachment patterns and also found in the same study a strong relationship between attachment and aggressive behavior. While the literature finds overwhelming links between attachment patterns and criminal activity, little has been researched in regard to the role gender and race play in this unique dynamic.

Race and Attachment

Attachment theory recognizes normative development while embracing individual differences (Hazan, Gur-Zaish, & Campa, 2004). The differences may be addressed in the context of various races and or cultures. For purposes of this study, it is important to understand how attachment styles vary by race. Much literature has focused on the development and substantiation of attachment, but the process is not usually differentiated according to race and culture (Laschinger, 2006). We do not know the role, if any, that the variable of race plays in the formation of attachment styles. Because humans develop and their sense of self matriculates within varying cultural contexts, it is important to consider that factor when considering any account of psychological development (White, 2006). The desire to seek proximity; reliance upon the primary caregiver; and desire for a secure base seem to be universal behaviors, but the displaying manner in which such desires are conveyed to others may differ by culture (Moreno, 2007).

As discussed in previous sections, Bowlby (1969/1982) believed in the evolutionary history of attachment theory. The core elements of the theory are universal to infants--the theory holds that they will become attached regardless of the culture in which they were born (Simpson & Belsky as cited in Cassidy & Shaver, 2008). It is important to note that universality does not

posit that race and culture are irrelevant to the formation of attachment (Cassidy & Shaver, 2008). There are culture specific dimensions and generalizable constructs of attachment related behavior (Main, 1990). van Ijzendoorn & Kroonenber (1988) found that 60% of all infants display a secure attachment style. Attachment security leads infants, regardless of culture, to the ability to regulate emotions, establish relationships, and develop cognitive abilities (Bretherton, 1991; Cassidy, 1986; van Ijzendoorn, Dijkstra, & Bus, 1995). The three basic attachment styles—avoidant, secure, and ambivalent—can be found in every culture in which attachment studies have been conducted (Cassidy & Shaver, 2008).

Specifically, Cassidy & Shaver (2008) highlight several studies in which specific cultural groups were examined and attachment styles were investigated. African countries, East Asian villages, and Israeli kibbutzim were highlighted in several longitudinal studies. It was found that, in general, most cultures and races display virtually the same attachment patterns, even in unique circumstances in which multiple caregivers are present or sleeping arrangements are communal as in the kibbutzim in Israel. Grice (1999) preformed a study in older adults and found a discrepancy among races in attachment patterns. Racial differences noticed include more African Americans being securely attached and more Caucasians displaying anxious attachment styles. Grice noted that the difference in race was most noted when factored with gender. Significant differences were noticed among Caucasians.

While statistical minorities, African Americans and Hispanics combine to represent 58% of inmates, while Caucasians make up 34% of people behind bars (DOJ, 2010). Although the rates of incarceration for African American males have decreased in the past year, the group is still six and a half times more likely when compared to their Caucasian counterparts to be placed in a correctional facility. According to White (2006), the development of the sense of self and

how that self relates to others may differ according to culture and is important to understanding psychological development and to the particular dynamics of the proposed study. We do not know the degree to which race affects the formation of attachment styles.

Gender and Attachment

The attachment behavior system is a result of the interplay among the varying behavior systems (Hinde, 1982). When examining the caregiving system, it is crucial to look at the interaction between the parental system and those behavior systems that can affect the styles of attachment. Gender and sex roles are important behavioral systems to explore within the proposed study. Little is known about the specific attachment behaviors associated with a specific sex or gender (Cassidy & Shaver, 2008). Reports of sex differences in adult relationships serve as a function of attachment styles, suggesting that the attachment behavior system may interact in important ways with gender roles (Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994).

Insecure attachments seem to be displayed in young males more so than in women. According to Chodorow (1978), females perceive themselves as similar to their mothers and combine the developmental task of attachment and identity as the same. However, males understand themselves as separate beings and perceive a separate identity and distinct sense of self from the mother. While females may seek attachment from the mother figure, males begin to place rigid boundaries around interactions with the mother in order to protect masculinity. Women are likely to place a higher value on relationships and the ability to care for others (Gilligan, 1982). Males tend to devalue characteristics correlated with care for others and behavior associated with creating and maintaining a close proximity. Females affirm a sense of self through relationships with caregivers and the relationship with the mother, and friendships can be seen as nurturing and empowering when viewed positively (Collins, 1990). Interestingly,

the research follows the findings that males tend to be more vulnerable to insecure attachment when coupled with a particularly stressful environment (Duncan, Brooks-Gunn, & Klebanov, 1994; Zaslow & Hayes, 1986).

Conclusion

In conclusion, the literature provided on attachment, race, and criminal behaviors fails to provide a direct link to each variable interacting and affecting the other. As one conducts a thorough literature review, the material suggests that there is a missing piece in the bigger picture of attachment patterns, race, and involvement in criminal activity. Data from the proposed study will assist in building an expansive understanding of poor patterns of relating, the role of race and unlawful behavior. Although several studies have demonstrated the usefulness of attachment theory as a framework for understanding criminal behavior, (Fonagy & Target, 1995; Jamieson & Marshall, 2000; McGarvey, Kryzhanovskaya, Koopman, Walte, & Canterbury, 2002; van Ijzendor, 1997; van Ijzendoorn et al., 1997; Ward, Hudson, & Marshall, 1996) these studies are few and fail to provide a thorough investigation of how gender and race affect these variables criminal behavior. The following chapter will provide an evaluation of the instruments used for assessment, research participants, methodology, research design, and statistical analysis.

Chapter III

Methodology

Introduction

The following chapter explores the research design of the proposed study, including information about the participants, the instruments employed, the research questions, and the statistical analysis used to evaluate the data collected. Second year doctoral students participating in a research and publication class originally collected the data. It is currently archived by the Department of Counselor Education at The University of Mississippi and will remain there for three years.

Participants

The participants in this study were male and females inmates in correctional facilities in two southern states in the United States. Approximately 250 inmates were recruited from separate facilities through the Mississippi Department of Corrections and Shelby County Division of Corrections (see Appendix F). The participants are older than the age of 18, have been convicted of a crime, and are serving time in a correctional facility for that crime. Informed consent forms will be attached to the testing material, and issues of confidentiality were addressed verbally (see Appendix D). Administration of research packets was done by research investigators, which includes oral instructions for completion of questionnaires and signing of consent form, request for participants needing questionnaires read aloud, and instructions on how to request information from the researchers (see Appendix E).

Inmates were recruited by prison staff to volunteer to participate in the study. The participants are considered to be a sample of convenience. Random selection of the sample is virtually impossible, because the study is based on a specific and confined population. Because the prison population is a protected population, issues of rewards and coercion were addressed in the oral instructions (see Appendix E).

The data from the research is intended to be generalized to the entire U.S. prison population. The Central Mississippi Correctional (2011) facility currently houses 3,212 inmates, with both females and males who require medical treatment. In addition to being a long term correctional facility, it is also a holding unit for processing inmates. Some of the data was gathered from females that were waiting to be transported to other prisons in Mississippi. The Central Mississippi Correctional Facility contains 2,081 male inmates, and 1,131 are female. The breakdown by race is as follows: 1,772 African American/Black, 1,402 Caucasian/White, 28 Hispanic, 5 American Indian, and 5 Asians. The Shelby County Division of Corrections (2011) houses 2,577 male inmates. The facility houses adult males with misdemeanor and felony substance abuse related crimes. Shelby County Division of Corrections contains 2,043 African Americans, 285 Whites/Caucasians, 23 Hispanics, and 2 Asians. Both facilities house minimum, medium, and maximum security level inmates. The researchers interacted with the minimum and medium security level inmates.

Inmates were recruited by prison staff to volunteer to participate in the study. The participants are considered to be a sample of convenience. Random selection of the sample is virtually impossible, because the study is based on a specific and confined population.

Instrumentation

The collection of data originally included the Adult Scale of Parental Attachment (ASPA), the Dissociative Experiences Scale II (DES), the Child Abuse and Trauma Scale (CATS), and a general questionnaire. For this study, the ASPA (see Appendix A) and general questionnaire (see Appendix B) data were extrapolated from the original data set that was gathered. Developed by Snow et al. (2007), the ASPA is an 84-item survey based on the ideas of attachment styles devised by West and Sheldon-Keller (1994). The ASPA detects the distinct patterns of relating and how those patterns form profiles of adult attachment styles (Snow et al., 2007). Those profiles, in turn, are useful in determining how an individual understands self and how that self relates to others. Based on the respondents' experiences with the mother and father figure, the ASPA determines the specific patterns of relating to each parent. Traditionally, attachment instruments focused on attachment in general and did not segregate the experiences for a specific parent. The ASPA is a self-reported questionnaire that uses Likert-style responses as options (never, seldom, sometimes, frequently, and constantly). It evaluates data gathered from the participant regarding his or her perceptions and feelings of parental patterns of relating from childhood memories, as well as the participant's interpretation of his or her own behavior as it relates to others. Because the ASPA focuses on childhood perceptions and memories of the parental relationship and considers the role of the father figure to a greater degree than other instruments, it is thought to be useful for the current research study. Constructing a baseline of attachment history is important for assessing the differences of patterns of relating in race, gender, and criminal behavior.

An analysis was performed to validate the ASPA (Snow et al., 2007). A second study was analyzed to substantiate findings from the first study using the ASPA. Internal

consistency was satisfactory for all factors with the highest Cronbach's alpha (.92) being safe for the mother and father and the lowest Cronbach's alpha (.65) being dependent for the father in the first study. The second study determined the highest Cronbach's alpha (.92) was father safe and the lowest Cronbach's alpha (.72) was father dependent.

A Varimax-normalized rotation was employed with a .40 loading value. A multi-dimensional scaling indicated that three patterns of relating—safe, dependent, and parentified—were dimensionally distinct from fearful and distant patterns of relating. A factor analysis produced five prototypes of attachment to a parental figure that appeared for both mother and father: Safe, Dependent, Parentified, Fearful, and Distant (Snow et al., 2007). They are defined in detail as follows.

Safe – This subscale evaluates the degree to which an individual perceived security in and with the parent. Comfort with the parent's ability to support the child is assumed.

Dependent – This factor assesses the degree to which a child experienced a need for the parent to be available. The child may have experienced insecure feelings of helplessness surrounding the brief or extended absence of the parent.

Parentified – This subscale gauges the degree to which a child felt responsible for the parent's feelings or needs. The child may have a well-developed sense of importance and draws great pleasure from being helpful.

Fearful – This factor assesses the feelings a child has regarding abandonment and fears the parent may not provide support. Feelings of anger and frustration toward the parent are common.

Distant – This subscale gauges the degree to which a child experienced disappointment in support and availability of the parent. Anger toward the parent is common, and the child may have experienced a need to distance himself or herself from the parent.

General Questionnaire. In addition to the ASPA, a general questionnaire was given to collect demographic information required for the specific variables being studied. The demographic information included age, race, sex and the details about drug use, criminal activity, and psychological diagnosis. The biographical information is understood to enhance the study, with more precise data ready to be exhumed and manipulated as isolated variables should further testing be needed. The general questionnaire was also used to investigate specific information regarding the incarceration (type of crime, length of sentence, and number of convictions). The general questionnaire is a self-report form and requires participants to report answers in writing using words and numbers.

Procedure and Design

The inmates were gathered in a general area by the associate warden and monitored by an officer on duty. Inmates asked the proctor for clarification, if needed. Once an inmate completed the packet of materials, he or she could then go to his or her room or out into the smoking area. Other than the break to smoke upon completion of the material, there were no rewards for participation. In order to avoid issues of coercion, the opportunity to smoke was not planned by the researchers or the officers in advance. Ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Mississippi and Tennessee Departments of Corrections and from the University of Mississippi Institutional Review Board (see Appendix F).

Upon receipt of a packet of materials, all participants were required to sign an informed consent. All sheets of the packet were stamped with a number, which was then used in the statistical database as the case number. Numbers are assigned, and identifiable information was separated from the test materials to protect the confidentiality of the participants. The primary researcher and committee chairperson will have access to the database where information is stored until June 2014.

The ASPA is scored by adding items under each subscale to arrive at a specific score to determine whether the subject's pattern of relating is safe, dependent, parentified, fearful, and distant. The mother and father variables are scored separately to show differences in patterns of relating to a specific parent. The person taking the test will supply a numerical answer for each question and it is based on a likert scale. The test taker will rate the degree (never, seldom, sometimes, frequently, and constantly) to which they experienced the question being asked. Each question holds a numerical value (1 for never; 2 for seldom; 3 for sometimes; 4 for frequently; and 5 for constantly). The scoring chart is divided into mother and father, and each question has a highlighted box (a shade of blue) under each subscale on which the subject is being evaluated. A numerical score will go in the highlighted box for each question (based on the numerical score mentioned above). Each subscale for patterns of relating will be totaled, and then an overall total will be derived. The totaled scores are then transferred to the profile sheet and charted on a line graph. An overall view of the profile will be observed by drawing the graph.

Research Hypothesis

The purpose of this study was to measure the variables that influence patterns of relating to both the mother and father figures in the prison population. The following hypotheses assess differences in relating to a particular parent according to race and/or gender. The primary research hypotheses (null and alternative) and secondary hypotheses are as follows:

- H₀1: There is no significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a1: There is a significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H₀2: There is no significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a2: There is a significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H₀3: There is no significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a3: There is a significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H₀4: There is no significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

- H_a4: There is a significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_o5: There is no significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a5: There is a significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_o6: There is no significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a6: There is a significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_o7: There is no significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a7: There is a significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_o8: There is no significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a8: There is a significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_o9: There is no significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.
- H_a9: There is a significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H₀10: There is no significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H_a10: There is a significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

A Factorial MANOVA was used to examine the 10 hypotheses. The differences being investigated are the mean scores for each dependent variable (patterns of relating). For each hypothesis, the researcher will examine how gender affects patterns of relating, how race affects patterns of relating and if there is an interaction between gender and race. Essentially there will be a total of 30 hypotheses tested.

Statistical Analysis

The research hypotheses above are listed sequentially in the order in which they were statistically analyzed. The statistical package Statistica (2009) and SPSS (2010) was used for statistical calculations. The research hypotheses were answered with a specific statistical strategy.

A factorial design examines the effects of one or more independent variable on the dependent variable (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003). In the study, the independent variables are gender and race, and patterns of relating are the dependent variable. Gender and race are considered independent because they cannot be changed by other variables. The dependent variable can change and depends on other factors that can cause it to fluctuate such as the variations in the patterns of relating. The advantages of a factorial design are the ability to study the effects of individual independent variables on a dependent variable while also studying the interactions of those variables. Determining whether levels of one independent variable affect the dependent variable in similar ways across the levels of the second independent variable

provides a richer understanding of the phenomenon being investigated. For this study, the researcher examined how a particular gender affects the patterns of relating, how race affects the patterns of relating, and the effect of the interaction between gender and race on patterns of relating.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) seeks to determine whether differences exist in the dependent variable that was caused by the manipulation of the independent variable. A two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a factorial design used to analyze two or more independent variables (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). This variation of the ANOVA determines whether interactions between the two independent variables are present, as well as how much of impact each of the independent variables has had individually (Garson, 2009). For the current study, the two independent variables are gender and race. This test looks for interactions between the two independent variables (gender and race), as well as how much of an influence each of the independent variables have had on their own.

The multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) method offers the possibility for a concurrent examination of multiple two-way ANOVAs (Grimm & Yarnold, 2000). Multivariate analysis allows for the handling of complexity in numerous variables. As stated by Grimm and Yarnold, "...we live in a two-variable world, and most interesting relations are among sets of variables" (p. 3).

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), "If groups are formed along more than one dimension, differences among means are attributable to more than one source" (p. 40). A MANOVA is a hypothesis evaluating formula that concurrently tests the significance of mean differences on two or more dependent variables between two or more groups. A MANOVA expands on the two-way ANOVA by including cases where more than one dependent variable is

present (Garson, 2009). The dependent variables for the proposed research are the five varying levels of patterns of relating (safe, dependent, parentified, fearful, and distant) for each parent (mother and father). One of the three basic variations of MANOVA, Factorial MANOVA, was used because this model handles multiple nominal independent variables and multiple dependent variables.

The procedure and design of the proposed study involved recognizing the problem; identifying the sample available for research and the population for which the study will be generalized; discussing the chosen instrumentation; seeking appropriate approval (dissertation committee and IRB); addressing the informed consent; pinpointing the intended hypotheses; and recognizing the data analysis procedure. It is the hope of the researcher that the results will influence programs within the prison system and thereby reduce recidivism rates. The information will be useful to counselors working directly with inmates and those doing interventions with the families of inmates. Ultimately, the research could help individuals within a correctional facility to become productive members of society, both socially and emotionally.

The procedure, instrumentation, and population employed in this study were selected based on fit with the data gathered and for the purpose of gaining insight into specific variables of attachment styles and the criminal population. The next chapters will analyze the results found and discuss the practical and theoretical implications of the discoveries based on the findings of current literature and contextual knowledge in the particular subject area.

Chapter IV

Results

Introduction

The proposed research study was designed to examine the relationship between patterns of relating and gender and race of prison inmates. The participants in the study were given the Adult Scale of Parental Attachment (ASPA) and a general questionnaire in an effort to gather information regarding patterns of relating, gender, and race. A series of MANOVAs were run to analyze the data that was gathered on the participants. Scores on the ASPA were considered the dependent variables and grouping variables of gender and race were the independent variables. Results for the 10 hypotheses are reported below.

Data Examination

Participants in the study were inmates at two midsize prisons in Mississippi and Tennessee. Involvement in the study was on a voluntary basis, and individuals were selected on willingness to participate and approval of participation from the assistant warden at each facility. The total number of participants was 251 with 134 of the participants from the prison in Mississippi and 117 from the prison in Tennessee. Upon a thorough and critical inspection of the data, a total of 222 valid data packets were considered for analysis. To maximize the research contributions and avoid unintentional exclusion of participants; all available and willing inmates were allowed to complete the testing packets and removal of participants was done on a case-by-case analysis of the data as information was entered into a database. Twenty-nine participants were eliminated because of missing or invalid responses.

Participants were not eliminated for missing data unless there were large portions or sections of the ASPA missing. Consecutive gaps in the answer grid were noted and checked with other researchers when decisions for removal were made. Statistica (2009) has a method for filling in missing data into the analytical spreadsheet and this procedure was employed for absent information.

Assumptions and Related Statistical Concerns

Prior to reporting the statistical findings of the data being studied, assumptions and related statistical concerns to the MANOVA will be summarized in the order in which they were preformed. The overall purpose of the study is to measure the variables that influence the patterns of relating to the mother and father figures of prison inmates. A MANOVA is a statistical procedure that evaluates the significance of mean differences of two or more dependent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The advantages of using a MANOVA as compared to multiple one-way ANOVAs is that it allows a researcher to concurrently evaluate mean differences of dependent variables while also assessing the interactions between the independent variables (Stevens, 2009). Unlike an ANOVA that measure one set of variables at a time, a MANOVA also highlights differences on combined sets of variables. Multiple ANOVAs also increase the risk of committing a Type I error.

A MANOVA design is a hypothesis evaluating formula that looks for variances in the population means of dependent variables across multiple independent variables or groups (Stevens, 2009). When selecting the appropriate dependent variables to evaluate, it is beneficial to choose correlated or related variables and avoid randomly and haphazardly assigning dependent variables. Dependent variables for the current study were selected based on the subscales of the ASPA. In the development of the ASPA, a .40 loading value in a varimax-

normalized rotation was used when administering a factor analysis (Snow et al, 2007). Five subtypes of attachment to each parental figure were found and are as follows: Safe, Dependent, Parentified, Fearful, and Distant (Snow et al, 2007). Cumulative eigenvalue scores of 21.69 (20.80 study II) for the mother and 23.10 (22.64) for the father; the cumulative percent variance was 51.65 (49.52) for the mother and 55.01 (53.90) for the father suggesting that the five factors have a sufficient correlation to group together but vary enough to extrapolate unique information regarding the patterns of relating of the individual taking the instrument.

It is important to test for assumptions when using a MANOVA because analysis of data is set up as a mathematical model that is based on an approximation to reality (Stevens, 2009). Violation of assumptions are expected but the question then becomes how extreme the violation must be before the data is deemed invalid. There are two types of errors: Type I and Type II. A Type I error is the false rejection of the null hypothesis. In this type of error, the researcher would determine that groups differ when in fact they do not. The second type of error would be to accept null when in fact it is false. Essentially this is saying that groups are equal when in reality they are not. To prevent the errors mentioned above, three assumptions must be met when conducting a MANOVA: observations are independent, observations of the dependent variable follow a multivariate normal distribution in each group, and population variances are equal (similar to homogeneity of variance).

The first assumption considered was that for independence. According the Stevens (2009), each participant's score on a variable should be independent, or uninfluenced by another participant's score. The violation of this assumption is considered serious. In some research projects within the social sciences, there is clear evidence that participants will be interrelated and influenced by participation in the group. For example, those individuals participating in a

treatment group may be impacted by the scores of the participants of the other group members. However, the current research study does not seek to look at interaction among participants so it is assumed that the independence assumption has not been violated.

Commonly referred to as the multivariate normality assumption, each dependent variable is assumed to be normally distributed (Stevens, 2009). Variations from normality have minor effect on Type I errors and are often relaxed because MANOVA is strong enough to cope with the violation if the group size is adequately large. Bock (1975) found that even those distributions that are noticeably deviated from normality are considered fairly accurate with sums of 50 or more observations. The group size of the current study is somewhat large and therefore adheres to the assumption of normality.

The third assumption for MANOVA that must be satisfied is homogeneity of variances in the population. The discrepancies or inconsistencies for each dependent variable are assumed to be equal in all groups being analyzed (Stevens, 2009). N for the largest group should be no more than 1.5 times the N of the smallest group. Still if the groups are noticeably diverse in size, the F statistic is conservative enough when the larger variance is coupled with the larger group. Significant results are obtainable even at more severe variations in the levels. This is seen with the current study in that there are extreme differences in group sizes but the *Box's M* test for homogeneity is insignificant (Stevens, 2009). *Box's M* was found to be .180 which is more than the alpha level of .05 and thereby deems the data not in violation of the homogeneity assumption. Considering there were only seven participants in ethnic groups outside of black and white, data for race was collapsed into two groups: White and Non-White. Those originally listed as White stayed in that grouping and those in other minority groups (Black, Hispanic, Dominican, and other) were combined into the heading of Non-White. The significance of *Box's M* for the

collapsed groups was found to be (.168). Because of the discrepancy in group variance, the collapsed group of data will be used for the data analysis section.

General Information and Descriptive Statistics

Demographic data gathered revealed 222 applicable participants, 64.1% were male (N=143), and were female 35.4% (N=79). The racial make-up of the participants are as follows: 39.64% (N= 88) were Caucasian/White, 57.21% (N=127) were African American, .45% (N=1) were Hispanic, .45% (N=1), were American Indian, .90% (N=2) were Dominican, and 1.351% (N=3) were other. After collapsing all Non-White participants (African American, Hispanic, American Indian, Dominican), there were 39.5% (N=88) Caucasian/White and the Non-White composition was 60.1% (N=134). Detailed Tables (1 and 2) are shown below.

Table 1

<i>Frequency of the Gender</i>		
	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	143	64.1
Female	79	35.4

Table 2

Frequency of the Race

Group	Frequency	Percent
Caucasian/White	88	39.64
African American	127	57.1
Hispanic	1	.45
American Indian	1	.45
Dominican	2	.90
Other	3	1.35
Total	222	100
Combined		
Caucasian/White	88	39.64
Non/White	134	60.1
Total	222	100

Data Analysis

The following section investigates the 10 research hypotheses previously presented and examines the results of the series of MANOVAs that were done. Each hypothesis predicts that there is no deviation in the five patterns of relating of the ASPA for the mother and father caregiver when compared to gender and race. Upon investigating the multivariate test, there is no significant difference in the interaction of the gender and race variable, with Wilks' Lambda = .972, $F(3, 218) = .591$, $p = .820$. However, the MANOVA revealed significance for the gender variable, with Wilks' Lambda = .872, $F(3, 218) = 3.08$, $p < .0005$. The race variable also showed significant differences, with Wilks' Lambda = .863, $F(3, 218) = .863$, $p < .0005$. Each hypothesis will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Hypothesis One. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H_a : There is a significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

The first hypothesis sought to determine if there would be differences between gender and race of an inmate in the safe pattern of relating for the mother according to the ASPA. A MANOVA analysis was conducted to examine whether differences exist between the gender group and the race group in the patterns of relating to the mother safe. MANOVA revealed that there was no significance for the mother safe pattern of relating with $[F(3, 218) = .16, p = .689]$ for the interaction of gender and race, $[F(3, 218) = 2.31, p = .130]$ for the gender variable, and $[F(3, 218) = .01, p = .930]$ for the race variable. Because none of these significance levels are below alpha (.05), it is considered insignificant and the null hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis Two. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H_a : There is a significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

The second hypothesis investigated the differences of the mean score of the mother dependent subscale when looking at the gender and race of the participant. The MANOVA analysis for this hypothesis found that there was a significant difference in the gender variable [$F(3, 218) = 6.83, p < .0005$] for mother dependent but no significant difference in the race [$F(3, 218) = 1.35, p = .246$] and interaction of gender and race [$F(3, 218) = .47, p = .496$]. Gender seems to have an influence on the dependent ASPA subscale of the mother for the participant but the race and interaction of gender and race does not seem to be significant.

Hypothesis Three. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H_a : There is a significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

Hypothesis three explored the relationship between the independent variables of gender and race with the dependent variable of the ASPA subscale of mother parentified. Within the series of MANOVAs that were run, there was no significant difference in the gender variable [$F(3, 218) = 2.85, p = .093$]. However, there was a significant difference for the race variable [$F(3, 218) = 15.14, p < .0005$], and no significance for the interaction of the gender and race variable [$F(3, 218) = .05, p = .827$].

Hypothesis Four. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H_a: There is a significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

The investigation of the fourth hypothesis entailed an analysis of the fearful mother dependent variable with the gender and race of the participant. None of the variables or interaction of the variables were significant. Scores of the following for the fearful mother component of the ASPA: gender [$F(3, 218) = .92, p=.339$], race [$F(3, 218) = .52, p=.472$], and gender*gender [$F(3, 218) = 1.47, p=.227$].

Hypothesis Five. H_o: There is no significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H_a: There is a significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the mother by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

The hypothesis examines the differences between the distant pattern of relating to the mother figure by gender and race. The null hypothesis stated that there was no significant difference in mother distant by gender and race was accepted. Significance levels showed the following for each independent variable and then an interaction of the two: gender [$F(3, 218) = .09, p=.765$], race [$F(3, 218) = .78, p=.380$], gender and race [$F(3, 218) = .80, p=.373$].

Hypothesis Six. H_o: There is no significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H_a: There is a significant difference in the safe pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

The sixth hypothesis examined the father safe subscale of the ASPA by gender and race of an inmate participant. The MANOVA revealed that there was a significant difference for the safe pattern of relating to the father figure for one of the variables inspected: gender [$F(3, 218) = 8.95, p < .0005$]. However, there was not a significant difference for the father safe variable according to the race [$F(3, 218) = 1.48, p = .225$], and gender and race [$F(3, 218) = 1.47, p = .860$]. The researcher rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis because of the significance revealed.

Hypothesis Seven. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H_A : There is a significant difference in the dependent pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

The seventh hypothesis examined the data for significant differences for the father dependent subscale in gender and race of the participant. The MANOVA analysis for this hypothesis discovered that there was a significant difference in the gender variable [$F(3, 218) = 3.91, p < .0005$]. However, there was no significant difference found in the race variable [$F(3, 218) = 1.12, p = .292$] and the gender and race variable [$F(3, 218) = .02, p = .902$]. Because one of the variables presented significance levels below alpha (.05), the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative was accepted.

Hypothesis Eight. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H_A : There is a significant difference in the parentified pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

The hypothesis investigates the differences between the parentified pattern of relating to the father figure in gender and race of a prison inmate. Significance levels found scores of the following for the parentified father component of the ASPA: gender [$F(3, 218) = .54, p=.463$], race [$F(3, 218) = .05, p=.832$], and gender and gender [$F(3, 218) = .78, p=.380$]. The hypothesis stated there was no significant difference in the parentified variable of father by gender and race. The null hypothesis was accepted because of the lack of significance that was found.

Hypothesis Nine. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H_a : There is a significant difference in the fearful pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

Hypothesis nine examined the relationship between the independent variables of gender and race with the dependent variable of the ASPA subscale of father fearful. Within the series of MANOVAs that were administered, the between-subjects effect found no significant difference for the gender [$F(3, 218) = 2.03, p=.156$], race [$F(3, 218) = 1.24, p=.266$], and the interaction of the gender and race [$F(3, 218) = 1.68, p=.197$].

Hypothesis Ten. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

H_a : There is a significant difference in the distant pattern of relating for the father by gender and race of the participant as measured by the ASPA.

The final hypothesis for the research study sought to determine if significant differences existed in the variable of father distant by gender and race of prison inmates. The significance scores for the between – subjects effects revealed gender [$F(3, 218) = 1.25, p = .264$], race [$F(3,$

218) = .25 $p = .617$], and gender and race [$F(3, 218) = .13, p = .724$]. It was found that there was no substantial difference and the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Summary

Through a series of Multivariate Analysis of Variances (MANOVA), it was determined that there are no considerable differences between the dependent variables (ASPA subscales of safe, dependent, parentified, fearful, and distance) for the mother and father figures for the interaction of gender and race of the sample population in a prison setting, but a difference was found in the gender and race. However, analysis of the differences between the dependent variables found significance in four subscales: mother dependent, father safe, and father dependent for the gender variable; and mother parentified showed substantial difference when considering the race variable of the participant.

In the final chapter, Chapter V, points for discussion based on the current findings will be presented, along with information regarding the limitations of the study, contributions to the field of counseling and other relevant academic disciplines, and implications for potential future research.

Chapter V

Discussion

Introduction

The principal objective of the current research study is to examine the differences, if any, between patterns of relating in gender and race in an inmate population. Employing attachment theory as a point of reference, it can be assumed that criminal activity and attachment are highly related (Bowlby, 1969, 1977, 1988; Jamieson & Marshall, 2000). Because internal working models formed from interactions with primary caregivers explain relational behaviors, it is assumed that one's relational history will influence his or her propensity to participate in criminal activity (Bowlby, 1969). The current research presents ideas that are innovative in that no other study has explored relational patterns in the lives of prisoners and the gender and race of those prisoners. Another objective of the study is to provide a framework for interventions for those working within the prison setting.

The subsequent paragraphs will summarize the findings of the data; connect those conclusions to the current research literature; discuss the relevance of the current research to the field of counseling; consider limitations and the generalizability of the results; suggest topics for future research; note unanticipated discoveries; and present assumptions and implications for the theory.

Outcome, Data Analysis, and Hypotheses

The current study examined the connection between patterns of relating to mother and father according to the gender and race. Essentially, the overall research question sought to determine if variations occurred in patterns of relating to the mother and father figure according

to the gender and race of a prison inmate. Each hypothesis considered the way a particular gender affects the pattern of relating, how race affects the patterns of relating, and the effect of the interaction between gender and race and patterns of relating. Based upon the multivariate tests of patterns of relating, a significant difference was found in the gender variable with Wilks' Lambda = .872, $F(3, 218) = 3.08, p < .0005$. It was noted that the race variable was also significant, with Wilks' Lambda = .863, $F(3, 218) = 3.31, p < .0005$. However, the total interaction variable did not show significance, with Wilks' Lambda = .972, $F(3, 218) = .59, p = .820$. When looking at the tests of between-subjects effects for each variable (gender, race, and gender and race), the following subscales were found to show significance: mother/dependent for gender, father/dependent for gender, father/safe for gender, and mother/parentified for race. The interaction of gender and race did not produce any significant values on the subscales.

Mother/Dependent/Gender. The second hypothesis in the study prompted investigation of whether scores of participants along the mother dependent subscale varied according to the participants' gender and race. The MANOVA found that there was a significant difference for the mother dependent variable in gender [$F(3, 218) = 6.83, p < .0005$]. In particular, the male mean and standard deviation ($M=11.25, SD=3.96$) was lower than the mean and standard deviation ($M=12.81, SD=4.75$) for the female groups. The males in the prison population seem to be less dependent on the mother figure than the females. Also of importance was the total mean and standard deviation for the mother/dependent variable ($M=11.81, SD=4.31$). When comparing the mean and standard deviation of this variable to the original studies validating the ASPA ($M=12.86, SD=4.04$), (Snow, 2011), the prison population appears to be less dependent on the mother figure than the general population. Table 3-4 presents mean

and standard deviations for each subscale in the general population and the prison population for gender.

Father/Dependent/Gender. The seventh hypothesis in the current research study examines the differences in the father dependent subscale when assessing the gender and race of a prison inmate. The tests for between-subjects effect found that there was a significant difference in the father dependent variable for gender [$F(3, 218) = 3.91, p < .0005$]. To better understand the meaning of this variable, the mean and standard deviation of the prison population ($M = 8.11, SD = 3.69$) are assessed. When comparing the mean and standard deviation of this variable to the general population, ($M=10.49, SD = 3.77$), (Snow, 2011), there appears to be a difference. In particular, the male mean and standard deviation ($M=7.75, SD = 3.53$) was lower than the mean and standard deviation ($M=8.77, SD = 3.89$) for the female group. The males in the prison population appear less dependent on the father figure when compared to the females. The perception of the need for the father to be available seems to be less than that of the general population.

The dependent pattern of relating signifies that the subject requires constant availability from a parent and may stem from helplessness experienced during earlier absences of that parent (Snow et al, 2007). In this study, the participants seem to display a lower dependent pattern of relating to both parents. They may sense the mother and the father as unable or unavailable to meet their needs for security and closeness. Male inmates display a lower degree of this pattern when compared to their female counterparts. There is also a lower level of dependency on the father for both male and female ($M=8.11, SD=3.69$) when compared to the mother ($M=11.81, SD=4.31$). It is concluded that for this particular population, there is a belief that the mother and father figures in their life are not essential to meet their desires for safety and proximity.

According to the internal working models of Bowlby (1969/1988), the understanding of the self and how that self relates to others is based on early interactions with the primary caregivers. The concept is fundamental to attachment theory and is essential to understanding the personality and the expression of patterns of relating. Internal working models organize individuals' social worlds and are relevant to understanding the two dependent subscales that showed significance in the data analysis (Collins & Read, 1990). The knowledge and memories associated with the availability of the caregiver come together to form expectations about the availability/reliability of the caregiver, and thus a self-concept about the individual's ability to elicit responses to needs for safety and closeness in others (West & Sheldon-Keller, 2004). The dependent subscale may be central to the individual's model and is associated with the anticipation and expectation of loss with the primary caregiver. Participants in the current research study, especially the males, evidently have memories of doubting both parents' ability to be present and meet their needs for proximity and closeness. The lack of trust will affect relationships with other people and may encourage criminal behavior.

Father/Safe/Gender. Hypothesis six explored the differences along the Father Safe subscale of the ASPA according to the gender and race of the participant. The MANOVA showed significant differences when looking at the Father Safe and gender variable [$F(3, 218) = 8.95, p < .0005$]. To further understand the relevance and importance of this pattern, means and standard deviations of the father safe ($M=22.21, SD=9.35$) was compared to the general population ($M=27.80, SD=9.87$), and the father safe subscale seems to differ considerably. To further illuminate this idea, the male participants ($M=20.83, SD=8.35$) and female participants ($M=24.69, SD=10.53$) were evaluated. The male participants seem to be less secure in their relationship to their fathers than the females.

This outcome coincides with one description of the safe pattern of relating. According to Snow et al. (2007), the safe pattern of relating focuses on the individual's perceptions of security and the relationship provides comfort in times of distress. The parent is available to protect and meet the needs of the individual to a degree, and the individual finds joy and pleasure in that knowledge. The following are examples of questions on the ASPA that measured the safe pattern of relating.

I had my father with me when I was upset.

When I was upset, I was confident that my father would be there to listen to me.

I usually discussed my problems and concern with my father.

The research suggests that although fathers spend less time with children and are usually not primary caregivers, the time that they do spend with the children is usually in play and reflects the quality of attachment (Horn, 2000). While security to the mother is soothing, consoling, and calming, security to the father is distinguished as restrained excitement. (Grossmann, K., Grossmann, Fremmer-Bombik, Kindler, Scheuerer-Englisch, Winter, et al., 2000). The father supports development of the child and is therefore important to understanding the feelings of security expressed in this subscale.

This subscale of father secure seems to be important to the development of feelings of security in a female. A report by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (2000) states that among the factors that predict the quality of the relationship with the father, the gender of the child was noted as influential. Females within a prison setting seem to feel more secure in their relationships with their fathers, and males tend to be less secure. However, as a whole, participants in the prison population experience fewer feelings of safety with the father than the general population. Those feelings of insecurity have been suggested earlier to be a

factor in the propensity to criminal activity (Frodi, Dernevik, Sepa, Johanna, & Bragesjo, 2001). See Table 3-4 for further explanation.

Mother/Parentified/Race. It was found that the Mother Parentified pattern shows significance when assessing the race variable [$F(3, 218) = 15.14, p < .0005$]. The total mean and standard deviation for the prison population ($M=22.61, SD=5.51$) also underscore the importance of understanding this variable. Specifically, mean and standard deviation for the white participants when measuring the mother parentified are ($M=20.74, SD=5.34$), and ($M=28.84, SD=5.29$) for non-whites. When compared to the general population ($M=19.41, SD=4.69$), the means and standard deviations differ considerably. This is notable because the population being considered obviously relates to the mother figure in ways that tend to differ from the general population. The mean and standard deviations for the variable of race is presented in Table 5.

A parentified pattern of relating is associated with the individual's perception of responsibility for the needs of the parent (Snow e al, 2007). Because of this inflated sense of duty, the individual may feel an elevated sense of importance and derive joy and pleasure from being helpful. The current study concludes that racial differences account for higher degrees of parentified patterns of maternal relating among prison populations. The quality of primary care relationship is thought to influence the attachment styles and functioning aspect of relationships (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). An individual who displays a parentified attachment pattern may have suspended social development in order to support the parent. This conclusion can serve as a framework for understanding the underdeveloped ability to relate to the self and others. The overdeveloped sense of responsibility displayed in the parentified pattern of relating may also explain an individual's inability to handle stress and immature development of coping skills.

One of the main goals of the current research was to determine if there is a direct link between race and patterns of relating. Much of the literature lacks specific information regarding the physical displays of race and how that may affect the way an individual relates to his or her primary caregiver. The literature does address the development of the self within a cultural context (White, 2006). The basic tendencies associated with attachment (the desire for proximity to the primary caregiver during times of stress or threat) seem to be universal. However, the behavioral manifestations of that tendency vary greatly according to culture (Moreno, 2007). The mother parentified subscale is the only category in which this study concludes that race accounted significantly for differences in attachment behaviors. It is thought that the cultural components of race, although few, have some influence on attachment with this specific population. The non-white group displayed a significantly higher parentified pattern of relating to the mother. Race and cultural components of parenting roles and behavior are evident and may explain why larger numbers of non-white children feel responsible for the well-being of their parents (Chaudhuri, Easterbrooks, & Davis, 2009).

Implications of the Study

Relationships established in the early years of life influence the relationships throughout the lifespan of an individual (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). There have been few studies that look into the unique role of gender and race in patterns of relating for individuals residing in a prison.

The findings of this study suggest differences in patterns of relating to parental figures according to gender and race of the subjects, all of whom are inmates in a state prison. Most notably, the research also implies that individuals in the prison population display less dependent patterns of relating than does the general population. Criminal behavior is likely fueled, or at least facilitated, by the negative aspects of attachment that result from the dependent relating

patterns. The mother and father figure appear to impact the participant in the same way when it comes to dependence. The findings build upon the knowledge that feelings associated with availability of the parent to meet needs for proximity and safety impact a person in such a way that patterns of relating to self and others are affected. The insecure patterns found in this study seem to influence a person negatively, especially the dependent pattern of relating to the mother and father figure.

Interestingly, gender of the participant plays a role in patterns of relating to a particular parent. Research suggested that males seem to have a more insecure attachment pattern than females (Chodorow, 1978). Females perceive the self as similar to the mother and tend to associate or identify to the mother. Males understand themselves as being separate from the mother and place high values on boundaries around interactions with the mother. This could be explained by observing the lower scores on the mean and standard deviations for the males on the dependent patterns of relating to the mother and father figure in comparison to that of the female participants on the same subscale (Table 3). Females also displayed higher levels of Fearful ($M=13.43$, $SD=6.17$) and Distant patterns ($M=14.51$, $SD=7.36$) of relating to the mother when compared to the male participants (Fearful – $M=12.64$, $SD=5.73$, Distant – $M=14.22$, $SD=6.44$). The explanation of this may lie in the processing of emotional connectedness that differs for each gender. Females may be more perceptive in their relationships to a parent and males may be more apt to ignore or overlook emotional cues. It appears that for the prison population, female inmates are sensitive to the need for closeness and are aware of its presence and absence. As stated earlier, this is of concern for the influences that others may have on these women. Manipulation and exploitation may occur because of this heightened sense of awareness.

Even though the study shows that there is a difference in gender and race of a prison inmate in patterns of relating, the two variables do not seem to influence the other. When the MANOVA combined the variables (race and gender) no significant value was found, with Wilks' Lambda = .972, $F(3, 218) = 5.91, p = .820$. This does not suggest a significant value was approaching. The high number makes it fairly clear that the two variables do not influence each other when looking at patterns of relating.

It is important to look at the other subscales when making assumptions about the prison population as a whole. The importance of the subscales that demonstrated significance is obvious, but the other subscales provide context and reiterate the findings. For example, the mean and standard deviations for the Mother Safe subscale in the prison population ($M=32.67, SD=8.54$) show a lower degree of safety and security when compared to the general population ($M=35.58, SD=7.67$). The Fearful ($M=12.92, SD=5.89$) subscales for the mother figure are higher when compared to the general population for the mother ($M=10.31, SD=3.82$). The Distant ($M=29.39, SD=11.82$) subscale scores for the father are higher than those of the general population ($M=26.60, SD=9.82$) and suggest that the population being investigated feels disappointment and anger regarding the father's ability to provide support (Snow et al., 2007). All of these findings further illuminate the differences in the prison population in patterns of relating to the mother and father figure (Table 3).

Table 3

Mean and Standard Deviation – Prison Population Total

	Prison Population	General Population
Mother		
Safe	32.67, 8.54	35.58, 7.67
Dependent	11.81, 4.31	12.86, 4.04
Parentified	22.61, 5.51	19.41, 4.69
Fearful	12.92, 5.89	10.31, 3.82
Distant	14.32, 6.77	16.81, 6.77
Father		
Safe	22.21, 9.35	27.80, 9.87
Dependent	8.11, 3.69	10.49, 3.77
Parentified	16.56, 6.97	17.23, 5.58
Fearful	9.70, 5.64	9.81, 4.75
Distant	29.39, 11.82	26.60, 9.82

Table 4

Mean and Standard Deviation – Prison Population – Gender

	Male (Mean and SD)	Female (Mean and SD)
Mother		
Safe	32.03, 7.83	33.85, 9.63
Dependent	11.25, 3.96	12.81, 4.75
Parentified	23.06, 5.65	21.8, 5.19
Fearful	12.64, 5.73	13.43, 6.17
Distant	14.22, 6.44	14.51, 7.36
Father		
Safe	20.83, 8.35	24.69, 10.53
Dependent	7.75, 3.53	8.77, 3.90
Parentified	16.30, 6.95	17.02, 7.03
Fearful	10.09, 5.73	8.97, 5.45
Distant	30.05, 11.61	28.19, 12.16

Table 5

Mean and Standard Deviation – Prison Population – Race

	White – Mean and SD	Non-White – Mean and SD
Mother		
Safe	33.14, 9.01	32.67, 8.54
Dependent	12.53, 4.39	11.33, 4.21
Parentified	20.74, 5.34	23.84, 5.51
Fearful	12.77, 5.72	13.02, 6.02
Distant	13.93, 6.77	14.58, 6.78
Father		
Safe	22.21, 9.79	22.20, 9.08
Dependent	8.64, 3.64	7.77, 3.69
Parentified	16.60, 6.78	16.53, 7.12
Fearful	8.96, 5.35	10.17, 5.80
Distant	28.52, 11.92	29.96, 11.75

Criminal Activity, Personality Development and Attachment Behaviors. It has been established that attachment and the process for organizing attachment patterns in the brain affects the overall emotional well being of an individual (Masterson, 2005). Attachment can even be viewed on a neurobiological level. An underdeveloped Prefrontal Cortex is present in insecure attachment patterns and contributes to an inability to organize thoughts, form coping skills for stressful events, and internally reflect thoughts and emotions. Those with insecure attachment styles display symptomatology of personality disorders, specifically Anti-Social Personality Disorder (APD). Much of the research assumes the link between psychopathology and attachment styles (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Criminal behavior is associated with higher rates of psychopathological personalities (Campbell, Porter, & Santor, 2004). The current study suggested that insecure patterns of relating were associated with criminal activity with gender and race having some effect. Although gender had a tendency to be more influential, race did have a role in the parentified attachment relationship to the mother.

Psychopathology and especially the development of APD seem to point to the interruption in the development of a healthy attachment at some point during childhood. Most experimental support implies a diagnosis of APD is likely caused by fractionated, disrupted, or chaotic states of the mind (Allen, Hauser, & Borman, -Spurrell, 1996; Levinson & Fonagy, 2004; Rasenstein & Horowitz, 1996). APD is closely associated with the propensity to participate in criminal activity and thought to be relevant in the discussion of patterns of relating and criminal behaviors (Fonagy & Target, 1995; Jamieson & Marshall, 2000; McGarvey, Kryzhanovskaya, Koopman, Walte & Canterbury, 2002; van Ijzendor, 1997; van Ijzendoorn et al., 1997; Ward, Hudson & Marshall, 1996). The development of relationships to the primary caregivers have an impact on a person's ability to build productive relationships with the self and others, as well as

the capacity to participate responsibly in society (Snow et al, 2007). There is no lack of evidence that suggest a negative relationship with the primary caregiver affects the development of insecure attachment patterns, thereby negatively impacting the individual's ability to participate in society productively (Hayslett-McCall & Bernard, 2002) The current study builds on this body of literature by demonstrating that the insecure attachment styles displayed are higher when compared to the general population (See Table 6).

From a practical standpoint, the current study endorses a unique perspective that can be utilized when addressing the concerns and rehabilitation of those in a prison environment. The current research shows that patterns of relating can be appropriately assessed in a prison population and, therefore, this construct of assessing unique characteristic of prison inmates can be practically utilized.

Limitations

Several outcomes and limitations must be considered when interpreting and utilizing the data that is presented. First, data was collected in two prisons in one geographical area within the United States. Second, this study is restricted to only one instrument and a general questionnaire. Therefore, it is possible that certain constructs relevant to the data that is gathered have not been assessed. Fourth, the ASPA is a relatively new instrument that lacks published empirical data to support the findings. Finally, the racial make-up of the participants was somewhat skewed. The presence of other minority races (besides that of African American/Black) does not match their representation in other prisons.

The ASPA has been used in several dissertation studies (Dempster, 2007; Hudspeth, 2009; Martin, 2005; Yang, 2011), and psychometric properties have been established. The article referenced throughout the study (Snow et al, 2007.), is relevant and confirms validity of

the ASPA even though it has not been published. The instrument was selected because of its unique solicitation of data regarding specific patterns of relating to the mother and father figure. There is no instrument available that is able to do that. The instrument was also selected because it measures the constructs that were the main focus of the study. Because it measures all the needed concepts, extra tests were not thought to be relevant.

An important limitation that should be addressed is that of the racial distribution of the sample population. The three minorities other than African American represented in the sample totaled less than 5% of the overall population. According to Department of Justice statistics (2009), minorities are overrepresented in the prison population, with the Hispanic population being three times that of the White/Caucasian prison population and African American males being six times that of White/Caucasian males. The racial composition of the current study seems to vary from that of the larger prison population and may contribute to the limitations of the research.

Because a 6th grade reading level is needed to properly complete the ASPA, the reading aptitude of the subject population may be of concern. Participants were given the opportunity to have a researcher read the test aloud if the information was found to be too difficult to comprehend, and several requested the service. The ASPA is sufficiently thorough in assessing patterns of relating in both parents that the benefit of using the ASPA seems to outweigh the limitation.

Suggestions for Future Research

Ideas for future research are based on the assumptions discussed in the previous section. Future research should perhaps focus on seeking a sample that is more representative of the current prison population based on race. This problem may find a remedy if the location is not limited to one specific geographical region. Although specifically seeking out certain participants would invalidate the data, certain precautions should be taken in selection of the prisons being researched. Research was conducted on inmates that are classified as a minimum or medium security level. These parameters may need to expand to include a maximum security unit. This may help diversify the data that is gathered.

For the most part, this study follows other findings. It is hoped that the ASPA, through wider publication, will attain the status of an unambiguously relevant and valid instrument. Another instrument that measures common constructs can be administered in future studies to substantiate the data that was gathered, as well as to affirm the ASPA as a credible instrument. Correlations of the ASPA and alternate tests will present confirmation and alternative consistency.

It is clear that the Dependent and Parentified pattern of relating presents unique phenomena. In particular, this population offers an interesting explanation for relationships with the primary caregiver, and researching the relationship further could provide interesting and useful data for the field of counseling. Research has discussed the insecure attachment pattern and how it relates to race, gender, and personality development and disorders (Frodi, Dernevik, Sepa, Johanna, & Bragesjo, 2001). Future research regarding the specific aspects of the dependent and parentified pattern of relating could contribute greatly to the discipline and perhaps influence rehabilitation programs within the prison system.

Unexpected Findings

For the duration of the development stage of the current study, it was believed that the interaction of gender and race would influence patterns of relating, especially in the current population. However, the data analysis failed to show a significant relationship. The MANOVA showed significance in the gender and race variables, but not when the two were combined. Also interesting, the father subscales of Parentified ($M=16.56$, $SD=6.97$) and Fearful ($M=9.70$, $SD=5.64$) are somewhat consistent or slightly lower when compared to the general population (parentified – $M=17.23$, $SD=5.58$ and fearful – $M=9.81$, $SD=4.75$). Further investigation of these unique findings may need to be conducted to better understand the phenomena.

Contributions to the Field of Counseling and Other Relevant Disciplines

As noted in Chapter II (Literature Review), variables that influence attachment patterns are documented and discussed. The current research supplements significant contributions to the field of counseling and relevant disciplines by reproducing previous findings and highlighting the variables of gender and race for a unique population. If criminal activity is impacted by patterns of relating, then understanding the role gender and race play can only contribute to the current field of study.

Given these conclusions, counselors working with the prison population should be mindful of how patterns of relating tend to vary according to the gender and race of a prisoner. Considerations for this unique population, with the current findings in mind, should be part of the standard of practice in counseling. Understanding this can help form better rehabilitation programs in the prison setting. Addressing the distinct needs of the population can provide practitioners more in-depth knowledge preceding formal evaluation and subsequent intervention.

Conclusion

An appreciation for attachment experiences provide practitioners with a point of reference in understanding the unique needs of clients, especially those within a prison. Attachment theory provides an exceptional framework of an individual's understanding regarding views of self and how that self relates to others. Attempting to grasp the distinct experiences of an individual supports the need for empirical studies that enhance the field of counseling. Although singling out an individual's variations may be viewed as stereotypical, the opposite is in fact evident. More research leads to contributions of useful knowledge that expands the field of counseling and the understanding of human behaviors as a whole.

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Childhood experiences of borderline patients. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 30, 18-25.

Appendices

Appendix A

Page I	ADULT SCALE OF PARENTAL ATTACHMENT Snow, Martin & Helm	
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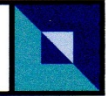
Directions (please read)

Please answer all of the following questions on the behavior of the person who you most identified as a mother figure while you were a child. This person may have been a step-parent, a grandmother, an aunt or a woman who was unrelated but a primary caregiver. Choose the person you spent the most time with before age fourteen. Should you feel there was not a person in your life who you considered a mother figure, do not complete this section, but move on to the next section. Answer each question individually and as accurately as possible. Do not worry about consistency across answers; we expect contradictions will exist in some cases.

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Constantly
1. I had my mother with me when I was upset.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I felt lost when I was upset and my mother was not around.	1	2	3	4	5
3. When I was anxious I desperately needed to be close to my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I felt relieved when my mother went away for a few days.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I resented my mother spending time away from me.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I felt abandoned when my mother was away for a few days.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I had a terrible fear that my relationship with my mother would end.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I was afraid I would lose my mother's love.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I was confident my mother would always love me.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I was confident my mother would try to understand my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I worried that my mother would let me down.	1	2	3	4	5
12. When I was upset, I was confident my mother would be there to listen to me.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I turned to my mother for many things including comfort and reassurance.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I talked things over with my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Things had to be really bad for me to ask my mother for help.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I wish there was less anger in my relationship with my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I got frustrated when my mother left me alone.	1	2	3	4	5
18. My mother seemed to notice me only when I was angry.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I got furious when I did not get any comfort from my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I got really angry at my mother because I thought she could have made more time for me.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I often felt angry with my mother without knowing why.	1	2	3	4	5

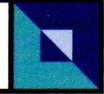


	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Constantly
22. My mother was always disappointing me.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I put my mother's needs before my own.	1	2	3	4	5
24. It was hard for me to get on with my work if my mother had a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I enjoyed taking care of my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I expected my mother to take care of her problems	1	2	3	4	5
27. I made a fuss over my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I sacrificed my own needs for the benefit of my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
29. It made me feel important to be able to do things for my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I felt it was best to depend on my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I wanted to get close to my mother, but I kept pulling back.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I wanted my mother to rely on me.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I usually discussed my problems and concerns with my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
34. It was easy for me to be affectionate with my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I was so used to doing things on my own that I did not ask my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I felt there was something wrong with me because I was distant from my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I often felt too dependent on my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I wish I could be a child again and be taken care of by my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I relied on myself and not my mother to take care of me.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I needed my mother to take care of me.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I was never certain about what I should do until I talked to my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I was helpless without my mother.	1	2	3	4	5

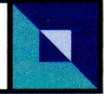
**Directions (please read)**

Please answer all of the following questions on the behavior of the person who you most identified as a father figure while you were a child. This person may have been a step-parent, a grandfather, an uncle or a man who was unrelated but a primary caregiver. Choose the person you spent the most time with before age fourteen. Should you feel there was not a person in your life who you considered a father figure, do not complete this section, but move on to the next section. Answer each question individually and as accurately as possible. Do not worry about consistency across answers; we expect contradictions will exist in some cases.

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Constantly
43. I had my father with me when I was upset.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I felt lost when I was upset and my father was not around.	1	2	3	4	5
45. When I was anxious I desperately needed to be close to my father.	1	2	3	4	5
46. I felt relieved when my father went away for a few days.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I resented my father spending time away from me.	1	2	3	4	5
48. I felt abandoned when my father was away for a few days.	1	2	3	4	5
49. I had a terrible fear that my relationship with my father would end.	1	2	3	4	5
50. I was afraid I would lose my father's love.	1	2	3	4	5
51. I was confident my father would always love me.	1	2	3	4	5
52. I was confident my father would try to understand my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
53. I worried my father would let me down.	1	2	3	4	5
54. When I was upset, I was confident my father would be there to listen to me.	1	2	3	4	5
55. I turned to my father for many things including comfort and reassurance.	1	2	3	4	5
56. I talked things over with my father.	1	2	3	4	5
57. Things had to be really bad for me to ask my father for help.	1	2	3	4	5
58. I wish there was less anger in my relationship with my father.	1	2	3	4	5
59. I got frustrated when my father left me alone.	1	2	3	4	5
60. My father seemed to notice me only when I was angry.	1	2	3	4	5
61. I got furious when I did not get any comfort from my father.	1	2	3	4	5
62. I got really angry at my father because I thought he could have made more time for me.	1	2	3	4	5
63. I often felt angry with my father without knowing why.	1	2	3	4	5



	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Constantly
64. My father was always disappointing me.	1	2	3	4	5
65. I put my father's needs before my own.	1	2	3	4	5
66. It was hard for me to get on with my work if my father had a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
67. I enjoyed taking care of my father.	1	2	3	4	5
68. I expected my father to take care of his problems	1	2	3	4	5
69. I made a fuss over my father.	1	2	3	4	5
70. I sacrificed my own needs for the benefit of my father.	1	2	3	4	5
71. It made me feel important to be able to do things for my father.	1	2	3	4	5
72. I felt it was best to depend on my father.	1	2	3	4	5
73. I wanted to get close to my father, but I kept pulling back.	1	2	3	4	5
74. I wanted my father to rely on me.	1	2	3	4	5
75. I usually discussed my problems and concerns with my father.	1	2	3	4	5
76. It was easy for me to be affectionate with my father.	1	2	3	4	5
77. I was so used to doing things on my own that I did not ask my father.	1	2	3	4	5
78. I felt there was something wrong with me because I was distant from my father.	1	2	3	4	5
79. I often felt too dependent on my father.	1	2	3	4	5
80. I wish I could be a child again and be taken care of by my father.	1	2	3	4	5
81. I relied on myself and not my father to take care of me.	1	2	3	4	5
82. I needed my father to take care of me.	1	2	3	4	5
83. I was never certain about what I should do until I talked to my father.	1	2	3	4	5
84. I was helpless without my father.	1	2	3	4	5



Please answer the following questions about yourself.

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Constantly
85. I felt the hardest thing to do was to stand on my own.	1	2	3	4	5
86. Closeness to others frightens me because they may reject me.	1	2	3	4	5
87. I let people get close to me.	1	2	3	4	5
88. I'm afraid of getting close to others.	1	2	3	4	5
89. I have a hard time giving affection to someone.	1	2	3	4	5
90. I've built a wall around myself.	1	2	3	4	5
91. Whenever I feel myself getting close to someone, I push them away.	1	2	3	4	5
92. I look to others for support.	1	2	3	4	5
93. I only feel secure when I'm by myself.	1	2	3	4	5
94. I take great pride in being independent.	1	2	3	4	5
95. My strength comes only from myself.	1	2	3	4	5
96. I get my sense of security from myself.	1	2	3	4	5
97. Caring for someone would make me feel weak and exhausted.	1	2	3	4	5
98. Being close to someone makes me think of suffocation.	1	2	3	4	5
99. I would lose my feeling of security if I had to share my life with someone.	1	2	3	4	5
100. I'm afraid to care for someone because I would lose myself.	1	2	3	4	5
101. Needing someone would make me feel weak.	1	2	3	4	5
102. I feel I can share my whole life with someone.	1	2	3	4	5
103. I wish I had a single lasting relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
104. I have close ties to someone.	1	2	3	4	5
105. I long for someone to share my feelings with.	1	2	3	4	5
106. I wish there was someone close who needed me.	1	2	3	4	5

This instrument was developed from questions in *Patterns of Relating: An Adult Attachment Perspective* (1994) The Guilford Press with permission from the authors, Malcolm L. West and Adrienne E. Sheldon-Keller.

Appendix B

GENERAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Age _____ Sex _____ Race _____

1. How long have you been incarcerated _____ months _____ years?
 2. When will you be eligible for release _____ year?
 3. Have you ever been incarcerated before _____ yes _____ no?
 4. How long were you incarcerated before _____ months, _____ years?
 5. Have you ever been incarcerated for alcohol or drug related problems
_____yes _____no?
 6. If yes, what substance or substances were you using _____
-
7. Have you ever been in a alcohol or drug treatment program _____yes _____no?
 8. If yes, how many times _____?
 9. Have you ever been in a psychiatric hospital _____yes _____no?
 10. If yes, how many times _____?
 11. What was your diagnosis _____?
 12. Are you currently on psychiatric medication _____yes _____no?
 13. If yes, what medication _____?

Have you ever been involved in any of the following activities?

14. Hitting a person _____yes _____no
15. Using a knife on a person _____yes _____no
16. Using a gun _____yes _____no
17. Threatening a person _____yes _____no
18. Intimidating a person _____yes _____no
19. Making a person do something they didn't want to do _____yes _____no
20. Putting a person in the hospital _____yes _____no
21. Killing a person _____yes _____no
22. Raping a person _____yes _____no
23. Physically abusing a child _____yes _____no
24. Sexually abusing a child _____yes _____no
25. Emotionally abusing a child (saying cruel things to a child) _____yes _____no
26. Injuring a person _____yes _____no

Appendix C



THE UNIVERSITY OF
MISSISSIPPI

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs

The University of Mississippi
100 Barr Hall
Post Office Box 907
University, MS 38677
(662) 915-7482
Fax: (662) 915-7577

March 9, 2011

Ms. M. Morgan Litchfield
13 PR 3057 - 4
Oxford, MS 38655

Dr. Marilyn Snow
Leadership and Counselor Education
University, MS 38677

Dear Ms. Litchfield and Dr. Snow:

This is to inform you that your application to conduct research with human participants, ***The Influences of Race and Gender on the Attachment Styles within a Criminal Population (Protocol 11-194)***, has been approved as Exempt under 45 CFR 46.101(b)(4).

Please remember that all of The University of Mississippi's human participant research activities, regardless of whether the research is subject to federal regulations, must be guided by the ethical principles in *The Belmont Report: Ethical Principles and Guidelines for the Protection of Human Subjects of Research*.

It is especially important for you to keep these points in mind:

- You must protect the rights and welfare of human research participants.
- Any changes to your approved protocol must be reviewed and approved before initiating those changes.
- You must report promptly to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated problems involving risks to participants or others.

If you have any questions, please feel free to call me at (662) 915-7482.

Sincerely,

Diane W. Lindley
Coordinator, Institutional Review Board

Appendix D

MISSISSIPPI DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONS RESEARCH INFORMED CONSENT

- 1 Principal Researcher: Marilyn S. Snow, Ph.D., NCC, LPC, RPT-S, The University of Mississippi
2. Title of Proposal: Influences of Parental Patterns of Relating, History of Child Abuse and Dissociative Experiences in a Prison Population: Implications for Rehabilitation and Recidivism
3. Purpose of Research: To determine levels of dissociation in a prison and the influence of parental patterns of relating and a history of child abuse on dissociation, and how dissociation influences rehabilitation.
4. Methodology:
Participants will be given a packet of information that asks questions about patterns of relating to Mother and Father questions concerning their home environment and levels of dissociation
A general questionnaire will be included. They will be able to complete this packet in approximately 45 minutes.
The packet will be coded with a number which will only be available to the participant to ensure confidentiality
5. Approximate duration of Research Project: Approximately one hour for each participant.
6. Risks, inconveniences and/or discomforts disclosure:
No known risks beyond time and some discomfort may be experienced by participants when recalling past experiences.
- 7 The participant's rights, welfare, and privacy will be protected in the following manner:
 - A. In signing this consent form, you have not waived any of your legal rights, nor have you released this agency from liability for negligence.
 - B. All data obtained from you during the course of this study will be accessible only to the principal researcher and doctoral students participating in the research: Charley Braswell, Lynn Etheridge, Morgan Litchfield, Josh Magruder Nadia Kholomeydik, and Keysha Thomas.
 - C. Should the results of this project be published, you will be referred to only by number
 - D. As a research volunteer you are free to withdraw this consent and to discontinue participation in this study or activity at any time.

I understand the procedures to be used in this study and the possible risks involved. All my questions have been answered. I also understand that my rights and privacy will be maintained, and I freely and voluntarily choose to participate. I understand that I may withdraw at any time.

Participant Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Researcher Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

CONSENT FORM

Consent to Help

Title: Influences of Parental Patterns of Relating, History of Child Abuse and Dissociative Experiences in a Prison Population: Implications for Rehabilitation and Recidivism

Investigators

Marilyn S. Snow, Ph.D., LPC, NCC

Charley Braswell, M.Ed.

Lynn Etheridge, M.Ed, LPC

Nadia Kholomeydik, M.Ed.

Morgan Litchfield, M.Ed.

Joshua Magruder, M.Ed.

Keysha Thomas, M.Ed.

Department of Leadership and Counselor
Education

108 Guyton Hall

The University of Mississippi

University, MS 38677

(662) 915-1363

Description

You are being asked to help with a study about how people related to their parents and about their home life in childhood. Some questions ask about sensitive topics, such as your drug use, psychiatric history, criminal behavior, relationships with your parents, and sexual or physical abuse when you were a child or teenager. We hope to learn how relationships with parents and home life can influence daily experiences. If you decide to help, we will ask you to complete three tests and a general questionnaire. You will be done within 1 hour. The Mississippi Department of Corrections will not use the information you give in any way. Your help will not affect your possibility of parole.

Risks and Benefits

You may feel uncomfortable because of the questions asked on the test, but we do not think that there are any other risks. There will not be any direct benefits for you. There is a possible benefit to science in understanding human behavior.

Cost and Payments

No payment will be given for your help. There is no cost to you for helping.

Confidentiality

Your name will not be on any of the tests you complete. No one will know how you answered the questions. All results will be kept in a locked office at the University of Mississippi Oxford campus. Your name will not be used in any reports or publications. Your help will not be disclosed to any unauthorized person. We will not talk about or disclose any other information about your help.

Right to Withdraw

You do not have to help with this study. You may stop helping at any time even if you have already started the tests. Tell the researcher if you want to stop, or just stop

answering questions. Your help will not affect your possibility of parole or your standing with the Mississippi Department of Corrections.

The researchers may choose to end your help for any reason. This might be done to protect your safety, your information, or the research data.

IRB Approval

This study has been looked at by The University of Mississippi's Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB has decided this study meets University, state and federal rules about collecting data with humans. If you have any questions or comments please contact the IRB at (662) 915-7482. The MDOC research evaluation committee has also reviewed and approved of this study.

Statement of Consent

By signing below you are stating: I have read the above information. I have been given a copy of this form. I have had an opportunity to ask questions, and I have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

DATE

Signature of Participant

DATE

Signature of Witness

DATE

Signature of Researcher

**NOTE TO PARTICIPANTS: DO NOT SIGN THIS FORM
IF THE IRB APPROVAL STAMP ON THE FIRST PAGE HAS EXPIRED.**

CONSENT FORM

Consent to Help

Title: Influences of Parental Patterns of Relating, History of Child Abuse and Dissociative Experiences in a Prison Population: Implications for Rehabilitation and Recidivism

Investigators

Marilyn S. Snow, Ph.D., LPC, NCC

Charley Braswell, M.Ed.

Lynn Etheridge, M.Ed, LPC

Nadia Kholomeydik, M.Ed.

Morgan Litchfield, M.Ed.

Joshua Magruder, M.Ed.

Keysha Thomas, M.Ed.

Department of Leadership and Counselor
Education

108 Guyton Hall

The University of Mississippi

University, MS 38677

(662) 915-1363

Description

You are being asked to help with a study about how people related to their parents and about their home life in childhood. Some questions ask about sensitive topics, such as your drug use, psychiatric history, criminal behavior, relationships with your parents, and sexual or physical abuse when you were a child or teenager. We hope to learn how relationships with parents and home life can influence daily experiences. If you decide to help, we will ask you to complete three tests and a general questionnaire. You will be done within 1 hour. The Shelby County Detention Center will not use the information you give in any way. Your help will not affect your possibility of parole.

Risks and Benefits

You may feel uncomfortable because of the questions asked on the test, but we do not think that there are any other risks. There will not be any direct benefits for you. There is a possible benefit to science in understanding human behavior.

Cost and Payments

No payment will be given for your help. There is no cost to you for helping.

Confidentiality

Your name will not be on any of the tests you complete. No one will know how you answered the questions. All results will be kept in a locked office at the University of Mississippi Oxford campus. Your name will not be used in any reports or publications. Your help will not be disclosed to any unauthorized person. We will not talk about or disclose any other information about your help.

Right to Withdraw

You do not have to help with this study. You may stop helping at any time even if you have already started the tests. Tell the researcher if you want to stop, or just stop

answering questions. Your help will not affect your possibility of parole or your standing with the Shelby County Detention Center.

The researchers may choose to end your help for any reason. This might be done to protect your safety, your information, or the research data.

IRB Approval

This study has been looked at by The University of Mississippi's Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB has decided this study meets University, state and federal rules about collecting data with humans. If you have any questions or comments please contact the IRB at (662) 915-7482. The Shelby County Detention Center research evaluation committee has also reviewed and approved of this study.

Statement of Consent

By signing below you are stating: I have read the above information. I have been given a copy of this form. I have had an opportunity to ask questions, and I have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

DATE

Signature of Participant

DATE

Signature of Witness

DATE

Signature of Researcher

**NOTE TO PARTICIPANTS: DO NOT SIGN THIS FORM
IF THE IRB APPROVAL STAMP ON THE FIRST PAGE HAS EXPIRED.**

CONTACT FORM

Detach this form from your packet if you consent to participate. If you want information on the results of the questionnaires, you may contact (*prison personnel will be designated*) listed below. There will be no way to link you to your answers without having the number that is on the upper right-hand side of this page. This number matches the number on your survey and will be known to no one except you.

Person to Contact: _____

Appendix E

Feedback Script

My name is _____ from the University of Mississippi, and I want to thank you for completing the packet of information. I understand that you are interested in the results of your tests.

Before we begin, what were your experiences when you took the tests?

Did you have any particular area that stood out for you?

At this point in the feedback...the responses will depend on how the participant answered the questions above. We will focus on the area that stood out for the person and consider first the tests that brought up the greatest interests. An example may be that the person was most concerned with the questions about patterns of relating to parents.

I have brought a sheet that shows your answers on a graph, and I will explain what the graph indicates. On this test, there are five ways a person relates to their parents. Most of the time, people relate to their mother somewhat differently than their father. A person may feel safe and secure with both parents. Another way people relate to their parents is by feeling dependent on them. Then sometimes people seem to take care of one or both of their parents and it's like the child is a parent to the parents. And sometimes, people are fearful that their parents aren't reliable and may not always be available to them when they need them. And in some situations, people feel that it is better to be distant from their parents. There are a lot of reasons children become distant from their parents.

In your case, *using the attached scoring sheet, we will discuss their results.*

Another test that you took was the Home Environment Questionnaire. In that questionnaire, you answered questions about your experiences of neglect, punishment, and *if there has been any indication of sexual abuse the following would be said at this point*, you indicated you had experienced some sexual abuse in childhood. I know this was a difficult test to answer, and it sounds like your experiences in your home when you were a child were very stressful. *My expectation at this point would be that the person will either speak to the abuse or will avoid a discussion. Whatever the person says about this test, we will honor the person's needs. Should the person show a great deal of stress around this test, we will recommend that the person speak to a counselor at the prison who can help them work through some of the issues.*

The last test you took was about how much time you spent daily kind of "checked out". Everyone experiences what we call dissociation, and the easiest way to understand it is when we are driving along the highway and we go from one place to another and suddenly realize we don't remember driving through an area. Sometimes we even wonder if we ran a red light or didn't stop at a stop sign. Another example is when we're watching TV and realize we haven't been tuned into the story. And then some people experience even more of these states, and may not *this is where we will consider the actual dissociative experiences of the person and begin to*

describe what was demonstrated on the test. These experiences can be troubling, and you may want to tell a counselor about them.

Do you have any more questions for me? Again, thank you for helping us with our research. I hope what we find out from our research will be beneficial to people in the future.

Participant in the University of Mississippi Study/Closing Remarks

Thank you for participating in our study. These surveys covered some sensitive areas that could affect you emotionally. You may want to address these with your prison counselor or medical staff.

Again, we appreciate you help.

Appendix F

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3R PROJECT

PAGE 02/02



Shelby County Government

A C Wharton, Jr.
Mayor

April 17, 2009

Marilyn S. Snow, Ph.D.,
Associate Professor
Program Coordinator, Counselor Education
Department of Leadership and Counselor Education
University of Mississippi
Guyton 108
University, MS 38677

Dear Dr. Snow,

This letter will serve as confirmation and approval for your research project; Influences of Parental Patterns of Relating, History of Child Abuse and Dissociative Experiences in a Prison Population: Implications for Rehabilitation and Recidivism. We consider this an opportunity for the Shelby County Division of Corrections and the University of Mississippi to establish the beginning of long term relationship for the development of enhanced services for the population we serve.

I look forward to working with you and the University of Mississippi. I am the initial contact for the start up of this project. Please reach me at 901-377-4695 or via e-mail at Stanley.Lipford@Shelbycountyttn.gov upon receipt of this letter so we can get started.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Stanley B. Lipford".

Stanley B. Lipford
Deputy Administrator
Re-entry Services/The 3R Project

Cc: Dr. John Bassett
Administrator of Support Services

DIVISION OF CORRECTIONS
1045 Mullins Station Road • Memphis, Tennessee 38134 • Phone (901) 377-4500 • Fax (901) 377-4503
<http://www.co.shelby.tn.us>



STATE OF MISSISSIPPI
DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONS
CHRISTOPHER B. EPPS
COMMISSIONER

April 8, 2009

Marilyn S. Snow, Ph.D.
University of Mississippi
Guyton 108
University, MS 38677

Dear Dr. Snow:

I am pleased to inform you that your request to interview up to 500 male and up to 500 female offenders at the Central Mississippi Correctional Facility has been approved.

You are allowed to conduct your research under the coordination of Ms Tina Ladner who has been designated as your contact by Superintendent Margaret Bingham.

As you will understand:

All other concerns are secondary to the secure and orderly running of the state's correctional institutions; therefore, the institutional superintendents have the authority to preempt such interviews in the case of institutional emergencies.

All interviews and related research will be conducted in accordance with MDOC protocols and policies.

We will appreciate any findings in order for our staff to better utilize the resources allocated to the agency for the best interest of the State of Mississippi.

You may contact Ms Ladner at her office at 601-932-2880, ext. 6530 to initiate your research.

Please do not hesitate to contact this office if we may be of further assistance to you.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Marsha England".

Marsha England, Director
Policy, Planning, Research & Evaluation

cc: Christopher B. Epps, Commissioner
E. L. Sparkman, Deputy Commissioner of Institutions
Margaret Bingham, Superintendent

VITA

M. Morgan Litchfield Bryant, PhD., LPC, NCC

13 Private Road 3057 -4

Oxford, MS 38655

(202) 486-7110

mmlitchf@olemiss.edu

morganlitchfield@hotmail.com

Education:

University of Mississippi – Ph.D. Counselor Education, August 2011

Primary Field:	Community Counseling
Secondary Fields:	Human Growth and Development

Dissertation Committee:	Dr. Marilyn Snow, chair Dr. Franc Hudspeth Dr. Marc Showalter Dr. Linda Keena
-------------------------	--

Mississippi State University – M.S. Community Counseling, August 2008

Mississippi State University – B.S. Educational Psychology – Minor in Child Development and Family Studies, May 1999

Experience:

Graduate Assistant/Counselor, University of Mississippi, August 2008 – May 2011
Counselor, Crisis Intervention Team, Eating Disorder counseling, OASIS Group Leader, Office of Violence Prevention Counselor, “Let’s Talk” Counselor, and Student Triage Project

Counseling Supervisor, University of Mississippi, Spring 2010 – Advised masters level students

Internship, Best of Both Worlds Drug and Alcohol Rehabilitation Facility, February 2008 – August 2008, Group Leader/Counselor, Art Therapy, Spiritual Counseling Specialty, Intake Intern

Executive Assistant, United States Senate Committee on Indian Affairs, September 2000 – August 2004

Teaching and Research Interests:

Counseling Skills – June 2009
Family Counseling and Theory – Spring 2011
Children and Adolescent Psychology – Spring 2010
Substance Abuse Counseling – Summer 2011
Child Abuse, Disassociation, and Attachment in the Prison Population – Research conducted
July 2009

Conference Papers/Presentation:

“African American Women and Food Addictions” Mississippi Counselor Association, Jackson, MS, November 2010

“Using Films in Counselor Supervision” – Southern Association of Counselor Educators and Supervision, Williamsburg, VA, October 2010

“Using Reflection Teams in Counselor Supervision” – Southern Association of Counselor Educators and Supervision, Williamsburg, VA, October 2010

“Triadic Supervision – Practical Applications” International Interdisciplinary Conference on Clinical Supervision, Buffalo, NY, June, 2009; Mississippi Counselor Association, November 2009

Manuscripts/Papers

“Attachment Patterns within the Prison Population” – A qualitative dissertation regarding the variables of race and gender on attachment patterns within the prison population, August 2011.

“A New View” – Manuscript for directing adults working with children using the therapeutic techniques of Play Therapy. January 2010

“Influences of Parental Patterns of Relating, History of Child Abuse and Dissociative Experiences in a Prison Population: Implications for Rehabilitation and Recidivism”
January 2009 – in process

“Supervisor with a Thousand Faces: Using Narrative Therapy in Supervision” – in process

“Obesity in the Workplace” – Career Convergence – in print

“Community Counseling” – American Counseling Association Encyclopedia – 2009 – Co-authored with Dr. Joshua Watson - Definition and Explanation

Memberships/Leadership:

American Counseling Association

Divisions: Counseling and Development
Association of Education and Supervision
Southern Association of Education and Supervision
Mississippi Counseling Association
Divisions: Mississippi Association of Specialist in Group Work – Secretary
Kappa Delta Sorority – Vice President (Standards), Leadership Board, and Risk Management
Kappa Delta Pi
Alpha Chi
Golden Key Honors Society
Meridian Symphony Orchestra League
Mississippi Society of Washington – Leadership Board
Junior League of Washington, D.C.
Kappa Delta Alumni Association

Special Training:

Green Dot Violence Prevention Training – March 2010
Group Counseling for the Chemical Dependent Client – University of Mississippi – February 2010
Calm in Chaos – Spring 2009 – University of Mississippi – Special skills in stress reduction, including guided imagery were demonstrated and learned.
Substance Abuse Subtle Screening Inventory – November 2008
Suicide and Crisis Intervention Training – August 2007 – Mississippi State University
Post Traumatic Stress Disorder Training Seminar – June 2008 – Mississippi State University – participants understood the importance of recognizing Post Traumatic Stress Disorder and practical suggestions for treating clients.

Licensure:

Mississippi Licensed Professional Counselor – April 2011
National Certified Counselor – October 2009
Licensed Professional Counselor eligible 2011
Qualified Counseling Supervisor eligible 2013

References:

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